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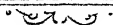
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PREFACE

IN the Educational World old methods are fast giving place to new. History is no longer a string of dates, or Geography the repetition of a number of names without life or meaning. That scholars learn much more readily if they feel an interest in the subject is a truism, and one great aim which the earnest Teacher always has in view is the arousing of such an interest.

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While avoiding everything that is dry, the Publishers hope to include nothing but what is educative.

To enhance the value of the series, each book will contain Two Coloured Illustrations, and, wherever possible, a Portrait of each person whose career is set forth. In some cases Pictures or Views will be substituted for Portraits.

The whole series will be issued under the general editorship of Herbert Hayens, while every writer is, or has been, a practical teacher, thoroughly acquainted with present-day scholastic requirements.

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I. Peter the Great.

FROM time to time in the history of the world, men have arisen through whose genius and energy new nations have been formed, or old nations so greatly altered that to all intents and purposes they have become new ones. Some of these men have been kings or emperors, some have been warriors or statesmen, others have been sons of the people filled with passionate love for their country. In every case they have been men possessing great strength of character and the power of leading and controlling others.

Such a man was Peter the Great, Ruler of Russia from 1689-1725. To form a fair idea of what he did for his fatherland, and how greatly he increased its power and its position amongst European nations, it is necessary briefly to survey the previous history of that vast country.

At the present time Russia occupies about one-half of the land surface of Europe, together with nearly one-third of the continent of Asia. It is rightly regarded as one of the most powerful nations in the world; but it has not

won that proud position without many a fearful struggle with bitter and relentless enemies.

The earliest inhabitants of the south of Russia were the Scythians and Sarmatians of the classic writers; the ancestors of the modern Russians probably belonged to the Slavonic tribes which settled about the headwaters of the rivers running into the Black Sea. These people founded the cities of Kiev and Novgorod — the western Novgorod, which afterwards became one of the Hanse towns. Finding, however, about the sixth century after the Birth of Christ that they were no match for the tribes pressing from the east, they asked the Scandinavians to come to their assistance.

As in our own country the Norsemen defeated the enemy, but themselves settled in the land, ruling over the Slavonians. Their leader, Rurik, became Grand Duke of Novgorod, and for about seven hundred years his descendants reigned over the Russians. His son, Oleg, who made Kiev his capital, carried on an active war with the Greeks of Byzantium, now Constantinople.

A great deal of the so-called history of this far-off time is probably a collection of old tales common to many countries. Thus, for instance, it is said that a magician had told Oleg that the horse he was riding would be the cause of his death. Oleg tried to cheat Fate by sending

away his horse and never going to see it. At last, hearing of its death, he laughed heartily at the magician, saying :

“The horse is dead, and I am alive.”

Still laughing, he went to see the horse's bones, and planted his foot upon its skull, when instantly there darted out a snake which gave him a fatal bite.

This tale is told of other Norse chiefs, and it helps to prove that there is a considerable mixture of Norse blood in the Russian nation, as there is in our own.

The first Russian to be baptized as a Christian was Olga, the widow of one of the rulers of Kiev. This was in the year 855 ; but the Russians did not become Christians until more than a hundred years afterwards. Their ruler, Vladimir, under whose sway the provinces of Kiev, Novgorod and Chernigov were united, went to Constantinople to be baptized. On his return he compelled his subjects to become Christians also, flinging down the image of the God of Thunder from his hill outside Kiev.

The Christians of Constantinople belonged to the Greek Church, which did not accept the authority of the Pope of Rome ; and the Russians have ever since belonged to that branch of the Christian Church.

Vladimir became a Christian in the year 988,

and in 1888 the nine-hundredth anniversary of his conversion was held throughout Russia with special services and rejoicing.

There was as yet, in 998, no thought of a Russian nation ; there was no unity amongst the people of the various provinces ; and it was usual for a ruler on his death-bed to divide his realm amongst his sons. Fighting generally followed among the brothers, ending often in the victory of one of them and the death or exile of the others. In this way Vladimir's son, Yaroslav, became the supreme ruler ; and he is remarkable as the first law-giver of Russia.

One of the early rulers of Russia married the daughter of Harold, King of England—that Harold who was slain at Senlac.

But a sad and terrible time was in store for Russia. Early in the thirteenth century began those Mongol invasions which ended in the conquest of Russia, and threatened to overrun Europe.

For over two hundred years the greater part of Russia was subject to these conquerors, who, having become Mohammedans, hated the Christian Russians. They were known as the Golden Horde, and their numbers are almost unbelievable. They were chiefly horsemen, moving with their flocks and herds from point to point of the vast plains of Siberia and European

Russia, consuming the food and forage as they went like a swarm of locusts.

Wherever their Khan happened to be, there the Russian nobles and princes had to go to pay homage. If the Khan spilt his wine, they had to lick up the drops; when they entered his presence they were required to knock their foreheads on the earth. They had to pay him the poll-tax gathered from their people, and sometimes were compelled to lead their own men in wars waged by their Mongolian conquerors.

No prince could ascend the throne without the Khan's consent, nor was he allowed to quarrel with a neighbouring ruler without the Khan's permission.

The Russians became almost an Asiatic people. They wore the long robes of the Mongols; their women were shut up and kept from the gaze of strangers; they adopted the Asiatic method of punishment by beating, using the "knout" for that purpose; and they took into their speech many Mongolian words.

During these two centuries the country of Poland became more powerful, seizing the western provinces of Russia, together with the city of Kiev, and defeating the Germans to the north and west.

Moscow became an important place; though it was more than once raided by the Mongol

hordes, and many of its people driven off like herds of cattle, to be sold as slaves in the Crimea.

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, however, Russia was united under the vigorous rule of Ivan III.—the Great—who married the niece of the last Byzantine emperor, taking the double-headed Byzantine eagle as the Russian arms.

This Ivan was the second of Russia's lawgivers, and during his reign the greater part of the Kremlin in Moscow was built. There were not many buildings of stone in Moscow, but the wooden houses were large, and well placed in wide streets.

Ivan IV. encouraged artists and workmen and soldiers from the western nations to settle in his country; for he wished Russia to be regarded as a European and not as an Asiatic nation. He took Astrakhan from the Mongols, and left Russia much stronger than he found it, though the latter part of his reign was soiled by his fearful cruelties. He has gone down to history in consequence as "Ivan the Terrible."

During his reign the Englishmen, Chancellor and Willoughby, tried to discover the north-east passage from England to India. Willoughby perished in the ice, but Chancellor, landing on the coast of the White Sea, journeyed to Moscow. Here he was received with delight, as the Czar wished to find some route by which he could

trade with the western nations. The Poles and Swedes and Germans on the west, and the Mongols and Turks to the south, made communication always difficult and often impossible.

A regular trade was set up, and a Russian ambassador was sent to the English court. The town of Archangel, on the White Sea, owes its existence to these English traders.

In Ivan's reign Moscow was burnt by the Mongols of the Crimea, but a Cossack named Yermack conquered and presented to Ivan a large part of Siberia.

After his death came what is known as the "Period of Troubles," during which the chief power was held by Boris, a man partly of Mongolian descent, who bound the empire more firmly together, and sent many of the sons of the nobles to be educated in France, Germany and England.

The Russian peasants, however, were now finally made serfs. They were bound to the ground they tilled, and could be bought and sold with it. They could not seek service under any other master than the owner of the estate upon which they were born. In later years the peasants were sold even apart from the land.

After the death of Boris came nearly thirty years of disorder. Pretenders to the throne fought with each other, and the country was

raided by Poles from the west, by Cossacks and Tartars from the south and south-east, and by Swedes from the Baltic shores.

At last the nobles chose as their Czar Michael Romanov, who was only sixteen years of age. A treaty was made with Sweden, by which Russia was completely shut out from the Baltic. The robber bands of Cossacks were more or less subdued, and a truce for fourteen years was arranged with the Poles.

Michael was the grandfather of Peter the Great, and the ancestor of the present Czar of Russia. His son, Alexis, got back from the Poles the important cities of Smolensk, Chernigov, and Kiev, and received the submission of the Cossacks of the Dnieper and the Volga. In his reign the Russian Bible was revised—a revision so offending many of the priests and people that they broke away from the Greek Church and became dissenters.

When Alexis died he left three sons, Feodore, Ivan, and Peter, and one daughter, Sophia. Feodore died after a short reign, and the country was faced with the problem of having to choose as the Czar, either the weak and incapable Ivan, or the boy, Peter.

Sophia, a clever woman, wished Ivan to have the throne, and not Peter, who was only her half-brother; but it seemed at first as if her step-



M N

Peter the Great.

B

mother's party was the more powerful. Sophia, however, gained the support of the "Strelitz," the chief regiments of the Russian army. These men, revolting, killed the chiefs of the other party, and Sophia was supreme.

Ivan and Peter were now declared joint-Czars, and Sophia was appointed regent; but the affairs of the country were managed by a man named Golitsin.

When Peter was seventeen, he determined to seize the reins of government, and by getting the soldiery to support him, with their Scottish general, Gordon, he succeeded in overthrowing Sophia and Golitsin. Sophia was imprisoned in a convent and Golitsin exiled.

Ivan willingly stood aside for Peter, whose reign from this year, 1689, may be said to have begun.

Russia was then almost entirely an inland state, without access to any seas except the White Sea and the Caspian. Yet, when Peter died, she had become a maritime power, with a large foreign trade.

An old writer says of Peter that he was of well-set stature, well-proportioned limbs, and ready address. He was self-reliant, scorning death and danger, and with so majestic a presence that, on several occasions, traitors and conspirators quailed before him, when he went alone to call them to account for their misconduct.

It is said that, when twenty-two years of age, he sailed with some of his nobles out of Archangel into the North Sea. A terrible storm arising, the seamen and nobles gave themselves up for lost, and, falling on their knees, began to pray. The helmsman left the rudder, when the Czar himself, seizing it, guided the ship under the lee of a rock, upon which they all landed in safety.

Peter's temper, however, was quickly roused by opposition. He had made a vow during the storm that he would go to Rome and pray at St. Peter's tomb. The nobles, through his mother, tried to turn him from his purpose, partly because of the danger of the journey, but chiefly, perhaps, because they did not wish him to see and grow fond of western manners and customs. His answer to his mother closed all discussion.

"If you had not been my mother I could hardly restrain myself," he said sternly. "My veneration for that name pleads your excuse for what you have dared to speak. But know that death is the penalty that awaits whosoever henceforward shall presume to blame my intention or resist it."

Such was the ruler of Holy Russia—a man rough, stern, and remorseless, but fearless and sure of himself; almost uneducated, but far in

advance of his countrymen in breadth of mind and strength of purpose ; a man whose training was Asiatic, but whose ambitions and instincts were European.

Travellers, who visited the Czar's dominions occasionally, brought back strange accounts of their inhabitants, and wonderful tales of the grandeur and wealth of the Czar's court ; but many who entered the country settled in it and were lost to the rest of Europe.

Many Scotsmen, soldiers and doctors of medicine chiefly, made Russia their home, being raised to positions of great influence.

One of the best known was that General Patrick Gordon whose timely assistance enabled Peter to seat himself on the throne ; but there were various others, whose names, curiously changed, are still borne by some of the noblest families of Russia.

Peter was aware that his army was no match for European soldiers, and he resolved to remodel it. The Strelitz, however, had great power, and it was necessary at first to go warily. A single regiment was formed of which a Swiss, Lefort, a friend of Peter's, was made colonel.

In this regiment Peter enrolled himself as drummer, rising step by step till he obtained his commission. This course he took to teach his people the useful lesson of submission to those

in command, and also to show that every grade in his army was honourable.

He determined that his country should take its proper place among the nations of Europe ; but he knew that could never be while it was hemmed in by hostile peoples and kept from free communication with the rest of the world.

Judging the Turkish power the easiest to attack, he sent Gordon to besiege Azov. We have here an early page of the tale of the struggle between Russ and Turk, which has lasted for centuries.

Gordon's first attack ended in failure, but in the following year he was successful. The Black Sea was now open to Russian commerce ; but the Russians had few ships ; nor were there any persons in all the land capable of building the kind of vessels which Peter required.

Resolved that Russia should have not only a fleet of merchantmen, but also a navy, he made up his mind to visit the two great maritime nations of Europe, the Netherlands and England, and learn the best methods of shipbuilding.

In 1697 he set off, leaving his realm in charge of Gordon. He had fitted out an embassy, the splendour of which would, he judged, impress the Dutch with the wealth of his country ; and with this embassy he travelled as a simple gentleman, taking the name of Peter Michaeloff.

He went first to Saardam in the Netherlands, and engaged himself as a carpenter, working in the dockyard for several months, living on the same fare as the other workmen, mixing freely with them and talking and jesting with them in their own language.

He was lodged in a little wooden hut, cooking his own food and making his own bed. Besides working as a carpenter, he learnt something of surgery, and studied the sciences of fortification and mathematics. He went to see all the factories to which he could gain admission, besides visiting hospitals, libraries and museums.

After getting from the dockyard master a certificate of skill in shipbuilding, he crossed over to England, and was lodged by the government in Sayes Court, near Deptford Dockyard.

Peter was an object of great curiosity to the English, many of whom knew his high rank, and wondered at his strange conduct. He was a rough-looking, rough-mannered man; and it is said that Sayes Court was much the worse for wear when he left it, though he lived in it only three months.

But he stuck grimly to his purpose, and, though he had occasional talks with William III. of England, and with the chief officers of state, he worked with hand and brain, learning to be a skilful shipwright, and engaging mechanics,

engineers, naval and military officers, gun-makers, doctors, cutlers, shipwrights and architects to go with him to Russia.

When he left England, William presented him with his own royal transport, the finest and best ship in the kingdom, carrying twenty-four guns.

Peter's intention was to visit every capital in Europe, learning, so far as he could, the secret of their advance in prosperity; but while in Vienna he received news so alarming that he set off post-haste to Moscow.

On arriving he found that the Strelitz had again revolted, but that Gordon had crushed them, putting some of the ringleaders to death and keeping the others in prison till the Czar returned.

Knowing the revolt was partly brought about by his sister and by those nobles and clergy of the Greek Church who hated all the changes he wished to introduce, his anger knew no bounds.

Several of the wretched Strelitz were hanged before the walls of the Kremlin, where Sophia could see them, while others were broken on the wheel. With such severity did Peter punish the rebels that his enemies were thoroughly cowed.

Peter now attacked those customs which, a constant reminder of the two hundred years' dominion of the Mongols over the Russians,

had become ingrained into the very nature of his countrymen.

He compelled his subjects to lay aside the long Mongolian caftan, and to put on European dress. He insisted upon their cutting off their long, flowing beards, making those who wished to keep this Eastern ornament pay a heavy tax, and wear a medal with a beard stamped upon it.

This was almost more than the poor peasants could bear ; for they believed that their guardian angel would draw them up to Heaven by their beards, while the Evil One tugged at their feet. It seemed to them that the Czar was cutting off their hope of salvation. The Czar, however, had his way, and beardless chins became the rule.

The disbanding of the Strelitz after their revolt enabled Peter to construct an army after the European fashion. He formed twenty-seven regiments of foot-soldiers and two regiments of cavalry, and had them clothed, armed and drilled in the European manner.

The year in Russia commenced on the 1st of September, having been so fixed by the heads of the Greek Church, who believed that the world was created in September. In spite of the anger of the priests, Peter commanded that the year should henceforward commence on the 1st of January, as was the custom in the rest of Europe.

He had seen that in other European countries

women mixed freely with men at private parties and public entertainments, and he set his face against the practice of the Russians, who kept their women shut up in a special part of the house where no stranger was allowed to intrude. A man did not even see the woman he wished to marry, either before or during the wedding.

Strange tricks were sometimes played upon the poor bridegroom in consequence. If his veiled bride happened to be short and stout, she was sometimes placed on a low stool which her long dress hid from view, and so appeared to be tall and graceful.

Peter now ordered that public meetings and pleasure gatherings should be held in every town and village, and that women should attend them as well as men.

Some amusing stories are told which show how little he regarded either the customs of his own country or the usages of polite society in other nations. He never had a very high opinion of the French; and it is said that when the ambassador of the King of France went to interview the Czar at St. Petersburg, he found him perched in the rigging of a ship, and was compelled to climb up in his laces and silks to deliver his master's message.

During his European travels Peter had seen that the prosperity of a nation must come from

trade. He had taken stock of the vast amount of valuable merchandise brought in ships from the East to Holland and England ; and he formed the plan of attracting much of this trade to his country by making a waterway from the Black Sea and the Caspian to the Baltic.

Scores of Dutch and English engineers, mechanics, and workmen of all sorts were engaged, and the gigantic task of connecting the seas was begun with vigour. The Volga and the Don were connected by a canal, and Astrakhan quickly rose to a position of importance. Canals were also made between the Volga and the Dwina, and Russian trade vastly increased.

Peter found more difficulty in dealing with the priests than with any others of his subjects. The Church had great power—the Czar himself was compelled to lead on Palm Sunday the ass upon which the Patriarch of Moscow was seated. Many priests were men of evil life, keeping their influence by teaching the most degrading superstitions ; they were greedy and selfish, and most of them uneducated.

Peter abolished the office of Patriarch, and proclaimed himself the Head of the Church, which still more embittered the priests against him. Many joined the discontented of other classes, working in an underhand way against the Czar's reforms, and winning to their side his son Alexis.

He bound the princes and nobles to himself by giving them something to do—some office or position in the State—and making their rank dependent upon the proper discharge of their duties.

He also paid much attention to merchants and seamen, encouraging them in every way possible. It was nothing unusual for the Czar to be seen smoking or chatting with a Dutch or English skipper—and this in spite of the fact that the priests looked upon smoking as a deadly sin.

Industries of various kinds were started by the Czar; libraries, art-galleries and museums were opened; printing-presses were set up and books published.

But Peter felt that his country was too remote from Western Europe, and he resolved to build a new capital, which should serve as a window from which he could observe what went on amongst the other nations.

The place selected was near the mouth of the Neva, the river which carries the waters of Lake Ladoga into the Gulf of Finland. This was, however, Swedish territory, and to take it meant war with Sweden, that strong military power which for so long had threatened Russia from the west.

Peter lost no time in forming an alliance with Poland and Denmark. Then, marching with

sixty thousand men into Swedish territory, he laid siege to the town of Narva. But the Russians were not yet a match for the Swedes and their warlike young king, Charles XII. Although his army numbered only nine thousand men, the Swedish monarch fell upon the Russians and routed them, capturing, it is said, nearly forty thousand prisoners.

Peter took the matter quite calmly, saying that the Swedes would teach him how to beat them. The victorious Swedes, however, marching into Poland, captured Warsaw and Cracow.

During this war Peter met Catharine, a peasant girl of Livonia, who became his wife, and after his death reigned over Russia as the Empress Catharine I.

He had been married already, but had divorced his wife, chiefly because of her opposition to all his reforms. It was probably her influence which turned Alexis, their son, against his father, and caused him to join the party of those who wished to return to the old ways.

In Catharine, Peter found a true wife. She was good-tempered and intelligent; she was able to control his almost ungovernable temper; and she worked heart and soul with him in all his schemes.

Before long the Russians were ready once more to face the Swedish army, and at last

Noteburg, near the mouth of the Neva, was captured. Peter changed its name to Schlüsselburg—the “key town”—for, by taking this place, he had opened the way to the conquest of the Swedish provinces on the eastern side of the Baltic.

He then began the building of his new capital. The site was a marsh formed by the overflowing of the waters of the Neva, and sometimes flooded by the sea; but the position was otherwise admirable.

Peter set thousands of men to work, many of them from the provinces he had just occupied. Whole forests of trees were cut down and driven as piles into the spongy soil, and upon this foundation Peter built his splendid capital, naming it St. Petersburg.

The king of Sweden, not willing to lose his provinces, gathered together a large army and marched into Russia. Peter retreated, laying waste the land as he retired; and Charles soon found himself in difficulties for want of provisions and fodder.

He had intended to march to Moscow, but receiving from Mazeppa, the hetman of the Cossacks of the Dnieper, an offer of thirty thousand horsemen, he turned to the south and besieged the town of Pultowa or Poltava. Here Peter defeated him, scattering his army and

taking numerous prisoners. Charles himself barely escaped with his life, and fleeing southward took refuge with the Turks, whom he persuaded to declare war against Russia, and to demand the surrender of Azov.

Peter marched southward, but his troops were hemmed in by the Turks. He was about to give up the struggle, when Catharine advised him to offer terms to the enemy, stripping off her gems, and gathering everything of value in the camp to send as presents to the Turkish commander.

On condition that the Russians surrendered Azov and retired from the Black Sea shore, the Turkish general consented to a peace. To these terms Peter agreed, though it must have been a bitter blow to him.

Accompanied by his wife, Peter made another European tour in the year 1717, visiting the capitals of Denmark, the Netherlands, and France.

But the party of reaction—those who wished to go back to the old ways—had now increased in strength, and Peter, to his sorrow and anger, found that Alexis had joined his enemies.

This prince was unintelligent, stubborn and vicious, and entirely under the influence of his mother, Peter's first wife, who hated the Czar deeply. He openly boasted that when he became

Czar, he would undo all his father's work. St. Petersburg should be deserted, and Moscow should once more be the capital ; the fleet should be destroyed or sold, and all the old Asiatic manners and customs be revived.

Peter had done his best for the young man. He had sent him to travel, so that he might see the advantage of western methods ; and he had married him to a beautiful and amiable wife, who died heart-broken four years afterwards.

Seeing that the succession of such a man would make his life's work valueless, Peter made him sign a paper renouncing the crown, and then had him tried as a traitor who had given valuable information to the Swedes, Germans, and Turks. The prince was condemned to death. On hearing the sentence, Alexis fell into a fit, dying in prison some days afterwards. His friends declared he had been murdered.

This dreadful event saddened the whole of Peter's after life, though it did not stop his work. Blow after blow he struck at Sweden, until she was glad to cede to him most of her Baltic provinces. He subdued the Cossacks, and seized valuable provinces from Persia.

Above all, he laid the foundation of Russia's greatness. He found her almost an Asiatic country, surrounded by enemies, with a people sunk in ignorance, and without national spirit

or commercial enterprise. When he died, at the early age of fifty-three, he left her a vigorous young nation, with rapidly-growing manufactures and trade. He found the Russian nobility lawless and selfish, living on their own lands and caring little about the state ; he left them disciplined and with definite duties to perform.

His faults were many, as might be expected from his upbringing and the age and country in which he lived ; but he proved himself a true patriot and an able statesman. The title which he took at the request of the Senate in 1721 was no more than his due : "Peter the Great, Emperor of all the Russias, and Father of his Country."

The great French writer, Voltaire, says of him : "He gave a polish to his people, and was himself a savage ; he taught them the art of war, of which he was himself ignorant ; from the sight of a small boat on the River Moskwa he erected a powerful fleet, made himself an expert shipwright, sailor, pilot and commander ; he changed the manners, customs and laws of the Russians, and lives in their memory as the father of his country."

II. George Washington.

IN studying the history of Peter the Great we have seen how one strong man altered the aims and character of a whole nation. While we consider the wonderful progress made by Russia during his reign, we are struck by the fact that he alone was the cause of the vast changes, that he was the fountain from which flowed the energy quickening into strong national life a people sunk in barbarism.

It is a pleasant relief to turn from the picture of a people unwillingly responding to the goad of a master hand, to that of a people winning for themselves a home in an uncultivated wilderness, defending themselves against relentless enemies, making their own laws, building their own cities, creating their own industries, establishing their own system of education, and finally, when treated unfairly by a tyrannical king and a foolish Parliament, asserting and maintaining their right to govern themselves without interference.

In the time of Peter the Great it was a far cry to North America; and it is improbable that the Czar ever gave it a thought. But, on the eastern

sea-board of that continent, here was in the making a nation which in the days to come would surpass his own in wealth and influence.

Upon that Atlantic slope of North America the British colonists had thriven in spite of hardship and danger. They had seldom been entirely at peace; the French on the north and west, the Spanish on the south, the Dutch about the Hudson River, and the Indians wellnigh everywhere, had tested their courage and developed their fighting power.

Each year saw them more prosperous. New industries sprang up; roads were made and forests cleared; villages grew into towns, struggling colonies into wealthy states.

Farther westward they spread, conquering the wilderness and driving its savage inhabitants before them. Their trade with other nations grew with astonishing rapidity. The forests of New England supplied timber suitable for the building of ships; and soon busy shipyards were turning out fine sailing-vessels which were eagerly bought by Europeans. The corn of Pennsylvania and New York, the tobacco of Virginia, and the rice of Carolina found a ready market in western Europe, while the salted cod of the Newfoundland fisheries was welcomed by the Catholic countries of Spanish America. Every year scores of emigrant vessels landed

their passengers on the shores of this rich new western land.

In Russia the very priests and nobles were often ignorant and ill-educated; but in New England it would have been hard to find any one unable to read and write; while all who could afford it, procured for their children a sound education.

The peasantry of Russia were bound as serfs to the soil; and all labour was looked upon as degrading, even after Peter had tried to break down this feeling by labouring with his own hands. In New England, on the contrary, labour was considered ennobling, and he who lived in idleness was an object of scorn.

This fine spirit was not, perhaps, found in the southern colonies, where crops which needed little skilled labour were grown on a more fertile soil and in a more genial climate. Here the labourers were chiefly slaves and convicts.

With few exceptions, the people at home regarded the colonies as having been planted for the convenience of the mother-country. They showed by their speeches and writings that they thought the colonists inferior to themselves. The colonies had long been used as places to which convicts might be sent; and this may have had something to do with the feeling. At best the colonies were considered to be very

convenient openings for British trade ; and in order to derive all the benefit possible from them, Parliament passed acts forbidding the settlers to trade with any country but England.

Their produce must be sent first to England, and landed on her shores : then it might be re-shipped and taken to foreign countries. In the same way, only from England might they buy. Everything they needed must be taken first to England, and only English ships and ships belonging to the colonies could take a cargo into any colonial harbour.

This was a splendid thing for English merchants and for English shipping ; but to the colonists it was a very great hardship, as it caused them to receive a much smaller price for their produce, and to pay much more for those things which they imported.

The settlers, moreover, were not allowed to begin any manufacture which might compete with those of the home country ; all manufactured goods had to be bought from the British—even nails and knives and hats !

The governors sent out to the colonies were not always well chosen. Some treated the settlers with contempt, refusing to accept them as equals.

The colonists, nevertheless, remained for many years faithful subjects, even when the English

changed one king for another ; and they always spoke of England as "home," as Australians and New Zealanders do now.

But it was not only natural love of their native land which made the colonists cling to the mother-country. There was a danger which threatened them from the north and the west—the military power of France. French armies, assisted by hordes of Indians, ravaged the New England colonies ; and had it not been for England's naval strength, which made it always a difficult matter for the French in Canada to obtain help from France, the whole continent might have become a French possession.

The various colonies were quite independent of each other. Each had its own governor and its own laws, and each had its own Assembly elected by the people. This Assembly fixed the taxes, and raised the money asked by the Governor for carrying on the public work.

When the French saw that it would be too hard a task to conquer the English colonies, they determined to shut the colonists in from the rest of the continent. To do this, they built a chain of forts from Quebec to the Mississippi, hoping thus to keep their rivals from occupying the fertile valleys through which the tributaries of the Mississippi make their way from the Alleghany Mountains.

The colonists of Virginia heard in the year 1750 that the French had built a fort in one of these valleys—that of the Ohio; and George Washington, a young officer of militia, was sent to ask the French commandant to withdraw.

The way was long and difficult, much of it lying through unexplored territory. There were friendly Indians to interview and unfriendly Indians to avoid. It was late in the year, and the crossing of the Alleghanies was made more dangerous by floods and heavy falls of snow.

Washington, however, safely carried out his mission, noticing on his way a splendid position for a fort where Pittsburg now stands. Unfortunately the French were quicker to act than their rivals, and upon that very spot they erected their strong fortress of Duquêsne.

George Washington was at this time barely twenty years of age, and must have shown more than ordinary ability to have been put in command of such a mission.

He was the grandson of a north-country Englishman of good family, who had emigrated to Virginia in 1657. His father died when George was ten or eleven years of age, and upon his mother lay the duty of training and educating her family. Fortunately for her sons, and for the future of America, she was well fitted for the

task. She was affectionate but firm, deeply religious, and of great common sense.

Very early in life George, her third son, became known for his love of justice and fair-play—it is even said that his schoolmates came to him to settle their disputes.

He was very tall and strong, and fond of all forms of exercise, in many of which, especially those which needed strength of arm, he excelled all his companions.

Whatever Washington did, he did well. His books were models of neatness ; and the surveys which he made for the government when he was eighteen years old were so exact that they are still referred to in any dispute relating to the country which he surveyed.

The answer which Washington brought from the French commandant was a refusal to leave the position he had occupied ; and a force was despatched to turn the French out. Washington was made second in command with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. The commander died on the way, and Washington was attacked by an overwhelming force. He and his men, however, defended themselves so ably that the enemy allowed them to march with the honours of war out of the rude fort they had constructed.

Washington now retired to Mount Vernon, an estate on the Potomac left to him by his eldest

brother; but when General Braddock invited him to go as an aide-de-camp with the troops about to attack Fort Duquêsne, he once more undertook active service. Braddock's expedition was a total failure, the general allowing himself to be caught by the French and their Indian allies in a deep, wooded valley. Nearly half his men were slain, and he himself was mortally wounded. Washington was unhurt—though he had two horses killed under him and four musket balls through his coat.

So well did he bear himself in this disastrous affair that he was asked to take command of a regiment raised to protect the colony from the bands of French soldiers and Indians, which now ravaged the frontier districts of Virginia.

Washington's force was so small, and under such slight control by the Assembly, that he could do little to check these incursions. Only about one thousand soldiers were placed at his disposal; and with these men and any assistance he could get from the militia, Washington had to defend a frontier of nearly four hundred miles. He never ceased to advise an attack upon Fort Duquêsne; and when Pitt became Minister of War in England the taking of this fort was an important part of his plan for the conquest of Canada.

Wolfe's victory at Quebec in 1759 finally broke

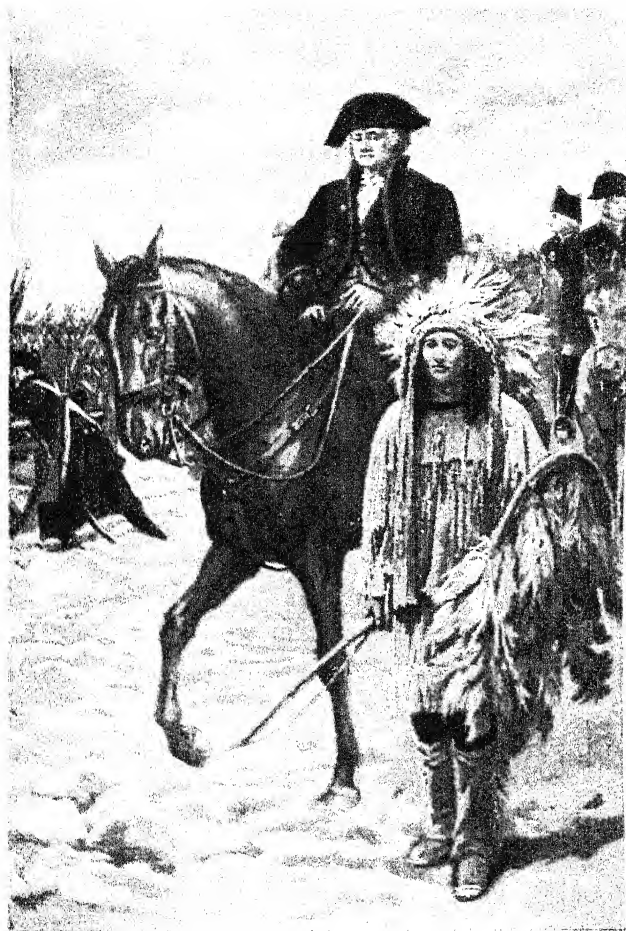
the power of the French in America, the whole of Canada falling into British hands during the following year.

The prosperity of the colonies now increased in a wonderful way. Thousands of immigrants landed on their shores, and the volume of their trade became much greater.

Thinking that the danger to his country was past, Washington withdrew from his position as commander of the Virginian militia, devoting himself to the cultivation of his estate and that of his wife—for he had married early in 1759. His wife's estate was near his own at Mount Vernon, and for fifteen years Washington busied himself in raising tobacco and wheat, exporting whatever he did not need, and receiving in return the manufactured goods of the mother-country.

The accounts he kept and many of the business letters he wrote are still in existence, and prove him to have been a remarkably able business man. His flour was known in Britain, and considered the best obtainable from the colonies.

At the end of the war with France, the feeling of the colonists towards their mother-country was that of loving and dutiful children. They were proud of her military and naval strength; they gloried in her position as the greatest nation on earth; their fashions were borrowed from the homeland; her laws were loyally obeyed.



M.N. Washington crossing the Delaware.

It was not long before a great change took place ; in a very few years she had lost the love and respect of her children, and was regarded as a tyrannical power determined upon taking away their liberties.

Let us see what had brought about so sorry a change.

The wars carried on for so many years had cost a great deal of money, much of which had been borrowed. The national debt was alarmingly great, and the taxes were very heavy.

To the king's ministers it seemed only fair and right that the American colonies, which had benefited so greatly by the result of the war, should help to bear the heavy load of debt incurred in carrying it on.

This policy of taxing the colonies had been spoken of before ; but it was not until 1764 that a statesman was found who dared adopt it. This was Lord Grenville, who in that year induced Parliament to pass a resolution that the colonists should be taxed. Then an Act was passed fixing a tax upon all silk, sugar, coffee and other imports.

The colonists protested against these duties, and Grenville was warned that he was acting most unwisely in trying to enforce them. The colonists denied the right of any Assembly in which they were not represented to impose any tax upon them.

"Let the king," they said, "tell us what money he needs, and our Assemblies shall vote it, and fix the taxes by which it must be raised. But we will not pay a tax fixed by the English Parliament. We are subjects of the king, but not of a parliament in which we have no representative."

Grenville, however, would not see the danger-signal. "They will grumble," he said; "but they will submit." In the next year he got Parliament to pass a Stamp Act. By this the colonists were forbidden to use for bills of lading and other business papers, for marriage certificates or for newspapers, any paper which did not show by its stamp that a duty had been paid upon it.

The colonists declared that this act should never come into operation. They felt that to submit to it was to give away their liberty. The Assembly of Virginia asserted that every attempt to invest any other body than that Assembly with the power of laying taxes upon the people of the colony was illegal and unjust, and would tend to destroy British as well as American freedom.

The Assembly of Massachusetts passed a resolution that deputies from every Colonial Assembly should be asked to meet at New York to discuss what was to be done. Nine colonies out of thirteen sent members to this meeting, which set forth very clearly the grievances of the colonists and sent a petition to King George.

Besides these orderly protests disorderly ones were made by the more riotous colonists. The houses of those who supported the action of the British Parliament were destroyed, and the supporters themselves often badly treated. A society called the "Sons of Liberty" was formed in Connecticut and New York, the members of which did all they could to urge the people to resist.

Within a few months, however, Grenville fell from power, and Pitt proposed that the Stamp Act should be repealed. This was agreed to, and for a time all seemed well. The colonists were overjoyed, and expressed in many ways their gratitude to the king and to the statesman.

Parliament still maintained that it had a right to impose upon the colonists any tax it pleased; and, since the colonists flatly denied this, the danger was by no means past. This was shown very clearly in the year 1766, after Pitt had taken his seat in the House of Lords as the Earl of Chatham. A Bill was brought into the House of Commons proposing a tax upon all tea, glass, paper and painters' colours imported into the colonies.

The passing of this Act raised a storm in America greater even than the previous one. Riots broke out in many cities. In Boston, the

largest town at that time in America, the rioting was so serious that British troops were sent to restore order.

King George III. was now the real ruling power in England. The Prime Minister, Lord North, simply carried out his commands, and in the House of Commons itself a big party known as the "King's Friends" always voted as the king directed. From 1770 to 1782 George III. had his own way; so that he was very greatly to blame for the loss of the American Colonies.

In Boston bad feeling broke out between the garrison and the people, and at last, in March, 1770, a mob attacked a small company of soldiers. The soldiers fired upon them, killing or wounding eleven people. This "massacre," as it was called, still further embittered the feeling of the colonists.

So loud was the outcry against the duties that the king instructed Lord North to remit all of them except that on tea. This was retained to uphold the principle that the British Parliament had the right to tax the colonists. The tax was made so small that taxed tea would have been cheaper than smuggled tea—but the colonists would have none of it. Some tea-ships were boarded in Boston Harbour by citizens disguised as Mohawk Indians, and the tea was

thrown overboard. This incident was afterwards spoken of as the "Boston Tea-Party."

To punish the people of Boston, the king had an Act passed closing the port altogether, and another shortly afterwards taking away the Charter of Massachusetts, thus reducing it to a Crown Colony, the affairs of which would be managed by officials sent from London.

This was the last straw. The other colonies trembled for their liberties, and votes of sympathy with Massachusetts were passed by their Assemblies. Then a General Congress from twelve of the thirteen colonies was held in Philadelphia, the chief city of Pennsylvania. One of its members was George Washington, who from this moment took a leading part in guiding the people along the dangerous path they were now to tread.

Washington believed with many others that their strong protests would convince the king of the folly of his course. He was strongly opposed at this time to any talk of separation.

The king's answer to the petitions was an Act forbidding any British merchant to trade with the colonies, and another which practically gave American ships and cargoes into the hands of any one strong enough to take them.

The Congress drew up a "Declaration of

Rights," and forbade the importation of British goods.

The Massachusetts Assembly called out the local militia, and collected muskets and other warlike stores at Concord. A body of troops sent from Boston to seize these stores, was fired upon by a small company of militiamen at Lexington. The troops returned the fire, and eighteen of the colonists were killed. Marching on to Concord the soldiers destroyed the stores; but while returning to Boston they were attacked by numbers of militiamen, burning to avenge the death of their comrades. Before Boston was reached two hundred soldiers had fallen.

Thus began the war of American Independence. All the colonies hastened to help Massachusetts; the Congress at Philadelphia took upon itself the task of ruling the country, and appointed George Washington Commander-in-Chief of the colonial forces.

Before Washington arrived at Boston a battle had been fought at Bunker's Hill, just outside the city, in which the colonists, though defeated, had inflicted heavy losses upon their opponents.

Washington had now to blockade the city with an army which was the despair of its commander. The men enlisted for three months only, and, when their time was up, others had to take their place and learn the duties from the beginning.

Had not the British been commanded by men without enterprise or ability Washington must have been easily brushed aside. Instead of this he was allowed to seize strong positions, and, in the end, the British had to leave Boston and retire to Halifax.

This was in March, 1776, and in the June following a resolution that "the United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states," was passed in Congress, the members of seven states voting for it and those of six voting against it. In less than a month, however, this "Declaration of Independence," was agreed to by all the "States," as they were now called.

General Howe, in command of the regular troops—many of them Hessians from Germany, fighting for hire—was now threatening New York, which Washington had occupied, and he sent an offer of the king's pardon to those of the colonists who would lay down their arms. Washington answered, with the approval of Congress, that men who had done no wrong were in no need of pardon, and that Americans could not now lay down their arms until their independence had been secured.

For a time everything went in favour of the British; Washington was defeated at Brooklyn, New York was taken, and New Jersey overrun.

Washington retreated northward up the Hudson, but, being pursued by the victors, was forced to retire towards Philadelphia. Whole regiments deserted him, his force consisted of barely four thousand five hundred men, badly armed, miserably fed, without shoes, tents, or blankets.

Many settlers were afraid to give help of any kind, while others assisted the victors with supplies of food and forage, and with information concerning Washington's movements. So hot was the pursuit that often there was only a river between him and his enemies. He escaped at last by collecting all the boats for seventy miles along the Delaware, so that the pursuers could not cross without long delay.

Washington at length prevailed upon Congress to order that, in future, all who enlisted should serve till the end of the war, and that they should be supplied with proper clothing and weapons, besides receiving a better rate of pay.

He managed to hold his few troops together and even to win two engagements by surprising small forces of the enemy. General Howe sent home for more soldiers, that he might increase the size of the garrisons left in occupation of the places he had taken, and the king sent them willingly.

Washington was now defeated at Brandywine, and Philadelphia fell into the hands of his foe.



M.N.

George Washington.

A short time afterwards the colonial troops were repulsed with heavy loss in an attack on Germantown. The British now went into winter-quarters in Philadelphia, and Washington went into camp at Valley Forge, twenty miles away, so as to remain within striking distance.

While this struggle was going on around Philadelphia, a British army under General Burgoyne, advancing from Canada, was surrounded at Saratoga and forced to surrender.

This blow really decided the issue of the war, as it showed to France, Spain and Holland that the colonies were likely to win their independence. Britain had neglected her navy, and France saw a chance to pay off old scores, and perhaps win back her lost American colonies. In December, 1777, France recognised the independence of the United States, and shortly afterwards declared war against Britain. Spain joined her in 1779 and Holland in 1780.

A Spanish fleet besieged Gibraltar, and a French fleet sailed along the American coast. Howe retreated to New York, and Washington followed.

Lord Cornwallis, who had been sent into the Southern States, quickly overran and occupied Georgia and South Carolina. Gates, the victor at Saratoga, was defeated at Camden, and Cornwallis seized North Carolina. Entering

Virginia he inflicted another defeat upon the Americans and proceeded to Yorktown, where he expected to meet the fleet with supplies and fresh troops.

The weak British fleet, however, having been driven off by the French, Cornwallis found himself trapped between the French fleet and a large army of French and Americans. He tried to break out, but failed, and had to surrender on the 17th October, 1781. Two years later peace was concluded, the independence of the States being fully recognised.

Washington, to whose unfailing patience and unconquerable courage the Americans very greatly owed their independence, retired to his estate at Mount Vernon, and took up again the quiet life of a farmer and planter.

The American States were now free; but the country seemed altogether ruined. The fields were without crops, foreign trade had disappeared, many towns needed to be entirely rebuilt, there was little money left, and the country was over thirty million pounds in debt. There was not even coin enough left to pay the army. Congress asked the States for money; but the States replied that they had none to spare—and Congress itself had no power to levy taxes. Riots and insurrections broke out, while thousands of colonists known as "Empire

Loyalists," who wished to remain British subjects, crossed over into Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia.

It was evident to Washington that the States must have a central government if peace and prosperity were to be restored. So acute were the differences among some of the States that at any moment civil war might have broken out.

In their perplexity the people turned to Washington, as the one man upon whose wisdom they could entirely depend. He was chosen as president of a meeting of delegates from all the States, called by Congress at the suggestion of Alexander Hamilton, a clever soldier and able statesman, who was afterwards Washington's right-hand man in setting the finances of the country straight.

These delegates, who met at Philadelphia in May, 1787, had a responsible task to perform. Without any previous example to help them they had to frame an agreement which would bind the thirteen states into one country under a central government. Well it was then for America that among the fifty-five were men of whom any nation might have been proud—men of character, wisdom and genius.

The Convention, as it was called, commenced its sittings in May; but over four months passed before its task was done. The "Constitution"

which it drew up was sent to Congress and to the Assembly of each State. Months of discussion followed, in which feeling sometimes ran dangerously high; but at last the Constitution was agreed to by all the States.

The Constitution provided that each State was to govern its own domestic affairs; but power was given to the Central Government to raise money by taxes, to draw up treaties or make war with foreign countries, to manage the conveyance of letters, to set up law-courts, to maintain an army and a navy, and, if necessary, to borrow money.

A House of Representatives of two hundred and forty-three members was to be elected every two years by the votes of white men, a Senate of seventy-six members elected every six years by the Assemblies of the States, and a President every four years.

Washington was elected first President of the United States of America. The debts of all the States were taken over by the Central Government. This freed the hands of the State Governments, enabling them to devote their own funds to the improvement of roads, the making of harbours, and the fostering of trade and manufactures.

The Central Government raised the money needed to pay the interest upon the huge debt,

and gradually to reduce it, by a system of simple duties upon shipping, imports, and spirits.

Men who had money to invest began again to employ it in industries and commerce, and American trade increased. A new capital was built and named after the President; and here a building was erected for the meetings of Congress, worthy of the nation of which that gathering was the ruling body.

In all this grand work the guiding hand was Washington's. His prudence kept the young nation out of trouble with the nations of Europe—once very much against its will; while his quiet firmness and fairness kept order amongst the jarring parties of Congress. Twice he was elected President, and afterwards took command of the American forces when war with France was likely to break out.

Since his death bitter feelings have subsided, and men have seen more clearly the wisdom and nobility of this great man. No patriotic American to-day pronounces his name but with reverence and affection.

His work was a great and enduring one. By his energy, patience and perseverance he enabled his country to win in a struggle against tremendous odds, and by his moderation and prudence he set her securely upon the road to a prosperity, which is one of the wonders of modern days.

III. William Pitt.

WE must now turn from our study of the causes and course of the struggle by which the American colonies gained their independence, and of the birth of the nation now known as the United States of America, to consider the effect of the long contest upon the Mother-Land.

To King George III. it seemed that Britain was fighting for her existence. He honestly believed that if the colonies were wrenched away from his dominions, the West Indies, Canada, and even Ireland would follow. He had brought about the war by the measures forced through parliament, and he was determined that it should continue until the opposition of the colonists was crushed.

It may astonish those who know something of the government at the present time to learn that King George should be accused of causing and prolonging the war; and a few words of explanation are needed to show how this came about.

Parliament consisted of two parties—the Whigs and the Tories. The first Whigs were those who brought about the Revolution of 1688, by

which James II. was dethroned, and William of Orange and Mary his wife, James's daughter, made king and queen. They denied the right of any king to reign over Britain except with the consent of the people; they insisted that the sovereign should belong to the Protestant Faith, and they aimed at crippling the influence and breaking the power of the Church, and severing its connection with the State.

The Tories were at first the supporters of James II., and afterwards of the Pretenders of the House of Stuart. They upheld the divine right of kings to reign and to succeed to the throne by inheritance, and they strongly supported the Established Church. They were for many years by far the weaker party. Indeed, from the year 1714, when George I. was called to the throne, the country was ruled by the Whigs for more than half a century.

During the reigns of George I. and George II. affairs were almost entirely in the hands of a few Whig families. George I. cared nothing about politics, so that his four Whig ministers, Lord Townshend, Sir Robert Walpole, and the Earls of Sunderland and Stanhope, were left to struggle amongst themselves for the chief power.

Each minister had his own following in each of the Houses of Parliament, and these factions were always plotting against each other—though

ready enough to combine if there seemed any chance of their defeat by the Tories.

Such a state of things would be impossible now—the people would soon end it by sending to the House of Commons men whose wish was to serve the nation and not to secure personal profit; but at that time the House of Commons could not be said to represent the people.

Many nobles were able to bring such influence to bear in their own counties that in some boroughs they could secure the election of any one they chose to bring forward. These boroughs were known as “pocket-boroughs.”

The owners of these “pocket-boroughs” would sometimes sell the whole of their votes, as much as four thousand pounds being given in 1768 for the votes of one borough. The offer of a title or of a profitable office in the government would sometimes induce the owner to part with his means of sending whom he liked to parliament.

The boroughs themselves occasionally offered their representation to the highest bidder—Oxford among the number!

Then there were “rotten boroughs.” These were places which had once had a considerable population, but had decayed and become of small importance. The voters in these places were few, and they voted for the candidate who offered

them the biggest bribe. In some of them, such as Old Sarum, which had only two voters, the men were paid a regular annual salary to live in the borough and return to parliament the man chosen by their landlord.

The queerest borough of all was one which had only one voter. He voted for himself, and sat in the House of Commons as his own representative.

There were also "crown boroughs," places which had been granted by one king or another the right to return a member to the House of Commons, and they were, of course, expected to vote as he told them. During the reigns of George I. and George II. many crown boroughs had fallen into the hands of the Whigs.

It might be thought that the bulk of the nation would show its dislike for this traffic in votes, by returning members pledged to bring in a Reform Bill; but the bulk of the nation was not represented in parliament. Out of every fifty persons only one had the right to vote. Many great centres of industry with large populations sent no member to parliament.

The Whigs, too, were fairly popular. They were looked upon as the defenders of the realm against the Stuarts and the Roman Church, and they had done their best to encourage commerce and prosperity.

George III., however, was not content to leave the government of his kingdom to his ministers, whether Whig or Tory. From his earliest years his mother had urged him to reign in reality when he came to the throne. "George, be a king!" she used to say; and George was not slow in taking her advice.

He was good-tempered until his will was opposed; but, when that happened, he showed himself obstinate and unforgiving.

He knew it was impossible to rule parliament as the Tudor sovereigns had done, and was too wise to fight it or to try to rule without it, as the Stuarts had done. He hit, however, upon a plan for controlling it which answered all his purposes. This plan was to have a party of his own in each House—a party strong enough to secure the passing of any measure of which he approved, and to defeat any which he did not like.

Some members he won to his side by bribes and pensions, to some he gave titles, others delighted to serve him simply because he was the king. Many Tories joined his party because of his defence of the Church of England and his hatred of the Whigs.

His party was known as the "King's Friends," and by its means King George was able to hold the balance between the various sections of the

Whigs, so that he gained the end for which he worked.

Time after time he instructed his "friends" how they were to vote, and each time he was obeyed. For the twelve years between 1770 and 1782 the king was supreme, and the Whigs were powerless. Lord North, who was Prime Minister, was merely the mouthpiece of the king.

We have read of our reverses in America, and at length, in spite of George's obstinacy, it was plain that the war would have to be stopped.

Lord North, who was Prime Minister, and who had faithfully carried out the king's policy, resigned his office in despair, and the king was obliged, much against his will, to ask the party he disliked so greatly—the Whigs—to take charge of affairs.

Lord Rockingham, the head of the Whig party, began to try to conclude peace with the Americans. The colonists were eager to meet him in ending the war, which had tried them to the utmost. On condition that their complete independence was recognised, they made peace with the mother-country in April, 1783.

The news of General Elliott's spirited defence of Gibraltar, during which he had used red-hot shot to set fire to the floating batteries of the French, had reached England in the September of 1782, and a few days later had come the

welcome information that Lord Howe had defeated the allied fleets of France and Spain and relieved the British garrison.

These victories, together with that of Admiral Rodney, enabled Great Britain to treat on somewhat better terms; but the Treaty of Versailles, which finally ended the war in September, 1783, was a bitter humiliation.

The Whigs were now resolved that the king's power should be diminished. This could be done only by taking from him the means of buying or securing "friends." He had been able to grant pensions, so the pension-list was revised and many names were removed; no pension was in future to be of greater annual value than three hundred pounds; the money which the king had been able to command for secret service was much reduced, and several posts about the court, with big salaries and little work, were abolished.

These useful changes were made before peace had finally been declared. Much more would probably have been done, had not Rockingham died suddenly in July, 1782.

Lord Shelburne, whom the king chose to fill Rockingham's place as Prime Minister, was so disliked by the Whigs—his own party—that many left him and joined the Opposition. One was Charles James Fox, an extremely able man—

though his private life was disgraceful, even for those times. Another was Edmund Burke, a clever writer and brilliant speaker.

Burke knew more than most men about America and India, and took a leading part in the debates upon questions connected with them. As one of Lord Rockingham's helpers, he had aided greatly in reducing the king's power to meddle with parliament.

One of his most powerful supporters was William Pitt, a young man of twenty-two. He was the second son of the famous Lord Chatham, William Pitt the Elder. He had been educated at home under his father's care until he was fourteen years of age, when he had gone to Cambridge University. After leaving Cambridge he had travelled in France, and had then studied law and become a barrister.

In January, 1781, however, Pitt entered parliament as member for Appleby. It was little more than a month afterwards that, when Burke's Bill for the regulating of all the offices of profit held under the crown was being debated, Pitt made a speech in its support of such eloquence as to create a sensation in the House.

"He will be one of the first men in parliament," some one said afterwards to Fox.

"He is so already," Fox answered.

Pitt's father, Lord Chatham, had been able

by his wonderful eloquence to sway men's minds and bend them to his will ; and it was seen that his son had inherited the same gift of fluent and persuasive speech.

He had a fine figure and eyes of great power. His voice was deep, strong, and musical, and he had a command of language such as has been given to very few men.

Added to all this, he had inherited his father's contempt for everything mean and low and paltry ; his private life was stainless, and, though he was ambitious and loved power, he used it always, so far as in him lay, for the good of his country. He was not among those who believed that Britain's day was over : he was confident she could recover from her recent wounds and once more lead the world ; but he saw she would do it much more quickly if parliament really represented the nation.

So many leading Whigs had deserted Lord Shelburne that he found it difficult to fill all the offices with suitable men. In this difficulty, thinking of the ability Pitt had already shown, he asked him to become Chancellor of the Exchequer, a post which Pitt accepted.

It was this government of Lord Shelburne's which finally arranged the terms of peace with the United States, France, and Spain—terms so displeasing to the House of Commons

that the government was compelled to resign.

Fox was at this time the leader of the Whigs, whom King George was determined, if he could manage it, to keep out of office. Lord North was able to control many Tories and those of the "king's friends" who would do anything for money or title or office; while Pitt was the leader of the party which had supported Lord Shelburne.

Lord North and Fox had for years been bitter enemies; but they agreed to make up their quarrel, and by joining their parties obtain a majority in the House of Commons. This agreement shocked the whole country, and made the king exceedingly angry. So eager was he to keep Fox and North out of office that he offered the post of Prime Minister to Pitt.

When Pitt refused, the king was obliged, much against his will, to ask the Duke of Portland, and since the duke was completely ruled by North and Fox, his ministry was termed the "Coalition Ministry."

Pitt was now leader of the "Opposition," as the party not in office is called. He brought in a Bill to reform the method by which members were elected; but, though Fox and North took opposite sides during the debate, the Bill was thrown out by a large majority.

During the next year Fox brought in his famous India Bill. Had this Bill become law, the government of India would have been taken out of the hands of the East India Company, and entrusted to a board of seven commissioners. These commissioners were to be chosen by the House of Commons and approved by the king.

In many ways the Bill was a good one. The East India Company had been guilty of tyranny and of unjust ways of getting money; and though many of the governors were very able men, most of them were compelled to think first of the Company and its profits, and only after that of justice to the natives of India.

But the fact that parliament was to choose the commissioners killed the Bill's chances of becoming law. It seemed that Fox and North simply wished to increase their own power—for the commissioners were all friends of their own.

Pitt opposed the Bill, but it was passed by the House of Commons. The king was furious, seeing that it would take a great deal of patronage out of his hands. Fearing the Bill would be passed by the House of Lords, he instructed Lord Temple to let the peers know that whoever voted for the Bill was not only not his friend, but would be considered his enemy.

The result of this strange and improper action

WILLIAM PITT.

the next year Fox brought in his India Bill. Had this Bill become law, the Government of India would have been taken out of the hands of the East India Company, and committed to a board of seven commissioners. Five commissioners were to be chosen by the House of Commons and approved by the

House of Lords. In many ways the Bill was a good one. The East India Company had been guilty of tyranny and unjust ways of getting money; and many of the governors were very able. But many of them were compelled to think first of the Company and its profits, and only afterwards of the natives of India.

The fact that parliament was to choose the commissioners killed the Bill's chances of becoming law. It seemed that Fox and North wished to increase their own power—for the commissioners were all friends of their own. Fox opposed the Bill, but it was passed by the House of Commons. The king was furious, for it would take a great deal of patronage out of his hands. Fearing the Bill would be rejected by the House of Lords, he instructed Lord Bute to let the peers know that whoever voted against it was not only not his friend, but would become his enemy.

Because of this strange and improper action



M.N.

William Pitt.

was that the Bill was thrown out, and with it fell the "Coalition Ministry."

King George now made Pitt Prime Minister. He was only twenty-four years of age, his party was much smaller than that of Fox and North, and he had only one helper of much ability.

In the struggle which followed, Pitt showed wonderful tact and readiness. He refused to resign when his Bills were rejected by large majorities, allowing his opponents to make themselves more detested by the people. Then, when he thought the time ripe, he dissolved parliament and appealed to the nation.

In the general election, his party was returned with a satisfactory majority; for not only was the nation disgusted with the "Coalition," but it had the greatest confidence in Pitt. He was now in a position of authority. He was trusted by the nation and trusted by the king, while the opposition was not strong enough to defeat the measures he supported.

From the first he followed a high and noble policy; the government was at last in the hands of a patriot—a man whose ambition was to make his country prosperous, to reform her parliament, and to amend her laws. He was no seeker after the spoils of office, as had been so many of the ministers who had held power before him. For seventeen years he continued in office—from

1784 to 1801 ; and during that time occurred events which altered the whole history of the world.

Great Britain needed then, perhaps more than ever in all her history, a far-seeing and patriotic minister. She was still suffering from the effects of her last war. Her national debt was two hundred million pounds, and her annual income was twelve millions short of the sum spent in managing her public affairs.

Yet the seeds of national prosperity were there ; all they needed was a fair chance to develop. The discoveries and inventions of Watt and Arkwright were already beginning to work vast changes in the manufacture of woollen and cotton fabrics ; the discovery that coal could be used in the smelting of iron had brought prosperity to the north of England, where coal and iron lay embedded in company in enormous quantities ; canals and deepened river-channels were taking the place of the roads as the arteries and veins of commerce ; even the roads were at last being well made, the expenses being met by a turnpike toll upon those who used them.

Increased opportunity to earn a decent living generally brings about an increase of population ; and the population of England, especially in her manufacturing centres, began to increase rapidly.

The increase of population increased the demand for food, and, as there was a heavy tax on imported food-stuffs, the farmers prospered amazingly, ploughing up and planting with corn more land every year.

Pitt was one of the first British statesmen to see that Britain stood almost alone in the manufacture of woollen, cotton, linen, and iron goods, and that she might soon become the world's source of supply of such goods and fabrics. Almost every nation wished to have her manufactures, but almost everything they could offer in exchange was heavily taxed on entering England.

The consequence was an enormous smuggling trade, the profits of which were so great that men willingly risked fines and imprisonment in order to secure them. A large force of customs officers was needed to watch the ports and coasts of the country, and the cost to the nation was enormous.

Pitt reduced many of the taxes upon imports, believing that a reduction of price would increase the amount used of the various articles, and that, while the revenue would be much greater, the profit from smuggling would be so small as not to be worth the risk.

The result of this bold step showed that his reasoning was right. Smuggling decreased so

much that he was able to pay off many customs officers, and to abolish several highly-paid positions, while a much larger proportion of the imports paid the smaller duty, and so the revenue was higher. In a short time the nation was paying its way; income was once more equal to outlay—sometimes even larger.

The national debt of two hundred million pounds was a more difficult matter to manage. The interest was part of the money to be found every year, and had to be provided by extra taxation. Pitt saw that if he could set aside each year, besides the money needed to pay this interest, a certain sum to be used in paying off the debt, the interest needed would be less in amount each year, and thus the reduction of the debt would become more rapid. To effect this he formed what is known as a Sinking Fund, a method of paying off a national debt first thought of by Sir Robert Walpole in 1716.

Pitt's father had regarded France as the natural enemy of Britain, and all his energies had been devoted to crippling her power and wresting her colonies from her. Some of the taxes upon imports into England were intended to injure France by interfering with her trade. Pitt saw, however, that the bulk of the French exports were such things as Britain herself could not produce—wine in particular—while

the bulk of our exports to France were such things as at that time France could not produce. It seemed to him possible to come to an agreement with France, by which the French duty on certain British goods should be decreased, and the British duty on certain French exports should also be lowered.

This resulted in a Commercial Treaty which was passed by the House of Commons—though not without bitter opposition—and gradually brought about a more friendly feeling between the two nations.

Ireland was at this time ruled by its own parliament, which, however, did not by any means represent the Irish nation. It was altogether independent of the British Parliament, so that, though they had the same king, Ireland and Great Britain were two distinct and separate kingdoms. The Roman Catholics, who formed by far the larger part of the population, were not represented in the Irish Parliament, which passed laws dealing very severely and unjustly with Roman Catholics.

There was always a danger that the Irish Parliament would not act in harmony with the British Parliament. This was shown when Pitt wanted to establish free trade between Britain and Ireland, each country taking off all taxes upon the imports from the other. The change

would have benefited Ireland very greatly, but the Irish Parliament would have none of it.

One way of controlling the Irish Parliament was, however, known to British statesmen. This was the method of bribery and corruption. Many members were willing to sell for money or office their vote and influence in the House.

At the time of which we are speaking there were no fewer than one hundred and sixty offences against the law, for which death was the penalty ; and persons condemned at Newgate to be executed were drawn in carts to Tyburn amid the jeers or cheers of the crowd, and there hanged publicly. Pitt put an end to such scenes by ordering that, for the future, condemned persons should be executed in the prison, but many years passed before the number of " capital offences " was reduced.

Pitt's humanity was awakened also to the cruelties of the slave-trade, and against it he made most brilliant and telling speeches ; but the Bill by which he intended to restrict this traffic was thrown out by the House of Lords.

The charges of injustice in their dealings with the natives of India made against the officials of the East India Company resulted in the famous trial of Warren Hastings, Governor-General of India from 1773 to 1785.

Hastings had upheld British credit in India

during twelve most difficult years; but his enemies accused him of tyranny, of compelling natives of high position to pay him large sums of money, and of unjustly condemning a native to death.

The Whigs demanded that he should be tried upon these charges, hoping Pitt would oppose this course, and so damage his own character. It would seem, they thought, that Pitt was afraid of the East India Company, which controlled several rotten boroughs.

Pitt had passed during the previous year an India Bill, which gave to the Crown the right to name the Governor-General and the members of the Board of Control, thus curbing to some extent the power of the Company.

To the surprise of the Whigs, he consented to the trial of Warren Hastings before the House of Lords—a trial which lasted for six years. In the end Hastings was judged not guilty; but the expenses of the long trial ruined him, and the hatred of his enemies embittered him, so that the greatest governor India has ever had died a grieved and disappointed man.

Lord Cornwallis, the first Governor-General appointed after the passing of the India Bill, carried on the work begun by Hastings, strengthening the British hold on southern India by conquering Tippoo, the Sultan of

Mysore, making alliances with the Nizam of Hyderabad and with the Mahratta chiefs, and putting taxation in the provinces directly under British control upon a fair footing.

The long struggle between Roman Catholics and Protestants had brought about a most unhappy state of affairs. In Ireland especially the lot of the Roman Catholics was almost unendurable. No Roman Catholic was allowed to teach, nor to keep arms, nor to learn how to make them. If any Protestant offered a Romanist five pounds for his horse, he was obliged to sell it at that price, no matter what its value might be. Any Protestant marrying a Roman Catholic lost all his or her property. No Roman Catholic could inherit lands or buildings, and if the son of any Catholic land-owner became Protestant, he could take the whole of his father's property.

This abominable state of things was lightened a little in 1778, when an Act was passed giving to Roman Catholics the right to lease land, but not to purchase it. Even then no Roman Catholic could become a government official, no member of that Church could sit in parliament, nor had he power to vote for a member of parliament.

In 1782, the Irish wrung from Britain their independence as a nation, the Irish Parliament was composed entirely of Protestants; but it at

once passed laws giving to Roman Catholics the right to teach and learn as they wished, and to purchase land.

We have already read of Pitt's attempt in 1785 to make Ireland prosperous, and of its failure. This failure was partly due to the jealousy of British manufacturers, but very greatly to the folly of the Irish Parliament.

On the failure of this Bill disorders broke out in Ireland. Protestant "Peep-o'-Day Boys" robbed the Roman Catholics in the north; Roman Catholic "Whiteboys" plundered the Protestants in the south, and "Roman Catholic Defenders" were equal to either in lawlessness.

The outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789 still further inflamed the feelings of the Irish. Wolfe Tone, a young lawyer, founded the body of United Irishmen in 1791, the object of which was to free Ireland from British tyranny. The Orangemen of the north offered bitter opposition to the United Irishmen, and a battle took place between them in Armagh in 1795.

Britain now being at war with the French Republic, an attempt was made in 1796 by General Hoche to land with an army in Ireland, but it resulted in failure. A Dutch fleet setting out for the same purpose was met by Admiral Duncan at Camperdown, and totally defeated. A small French force landed at Killala in 1798,

but had to surrender. Before this date, however, the rebellion had been crushed, the decisive battle being fought at Vinegar Hill, north of Wexford. Wolfe Tone committed suicide in prison, Lord Edward Fitzgerald was slain, and the other leaders were executed.

Pitt saw that the only chance for Ireland lay in complete union with Britain, and he set to work with his usual energy to bring about the abolition of the Irish Parliament. To win over the Roman Catholics he promised them just laws and equal rights with the Protestants. By bribes, promises of offices of profit, titles and distinctions, he bought over a sufficient number of members of parliament to vote for the change. The Irish Parliament ceased to exist, and Ireland was represented in the British Parliament by one hundred members of the House of Commons and twenty-eight members of the House of Lords.

The king, however, would not consent to the removal of the unjust laws against the Roman Catholics, and Pitt resigned, though in 1804 he again became Prime Minister.

To Pitt belongs the credit of beginning the colonisation of Australia—though he did not begin it in the best way. His Canada Bill, however, which gave large powers of self-government to that colony, showed the right method of dealing with our colonies.

Of Pitt's conduct of the war against France there is not room to say much—and it hardly belongs to his work as a statesman. His method was to advance large sums of money to various countries, so that they might launch large armies against the forces of the Republic.

Britain's military strength he wasted in useless attacks upon distant portions of the French dominions.

His death in January, 1806, was believed to be due to his despair at the destruction of his last "coalition" of the continental powers with Britain against Napoleon.

When he received the news of the French victory of Austerlitz, it is said that he rode home, and, pointing to the map of Europe, exclaimed: "Roll up that map, it will not be needed these ten years!"

Shortly afterwards he died, worn out in body and spirit, in the forty-seventh year of his age. His last words, according to tradition, were: "How I leave my country!"

As an orator and debater Pitt has had few equals; as a statesman, especially in the earlier part of his career, he showed nobility of purpose, width of outlook, and patriotic desire for the good of his country; but as a war minister, in spite of the wonderful victories won by our fleets, he must be regarded as a failure.

It is generally considered that the outbreak of the French Revolution, and the terrible crimes committed by its leaders, entirely changed Pitt's attitude towards reform. When he first entered the House of Commons he was desirous of so altering the laws relating to the election of representatives that the voice of Parliament should be the voice of the nation.

But, like Burke, he was terrified by the dreadful lengths to which the long-oppressed people of France were carried by their hatred of the ruling classes, and in the end he became the enemy rather than the friend of reform.

To the same long struggle with France was due the wrecking of his hopes of clearing Britain of debt. The knowledge that he was leaving the country burdened with a debt three times as great as that under which he found her struggling in 1784 added to the sorrow and despair of his last moments.

Pitt's life is really a great tragedy. Starting with high hopes, an honoured name, splendid ability, and lofty purpose, his life, by the force of circumstances over which he had no control, ended in gloom and apparent failure.

IV. Napoleon Bonaparte.

IN studying the life and times of William Pitt, we have seen how great an influence the French Revolution had upon the British nation. Men like Pitt and Burke, who wished that the people should have a larger share in the making of laws and in the management of the nation's affairs, were terrified by the excesses of the French leaders.

It seemed to them that to give more power to the Commons of England would be unwise at a time when men's minds were filled with the ideas of such writers as Voltaire, Rousseau, and Paine. As a consequence, all the wise and humane measures by which Pitt was striving to improve the condition of Britain and the British came to an end. Reform was set back for a quarter of a century and more.

The war into which Britain plunged with the young republic in 1793 lasted, with only short intervals, for twenty-two years, costing thousands of lives and millions of money, and leaving the country burdened with a debt of nine hundred million pounds.

Before the Revolution the people of France

were divided into three great classes or "states"—the clergy, the nobility, and the common people.

The clergy formed a privileged class which paid no taxes, though the lands they held were of great extent and value, and though they had the right to demand from the poor one-tenth of their produce.

The nobility formed a numerous class, to which additions were frequently being made by the creation of new titles. All the children of a nobleman belonged to his class, and had the same privileges. They paid no taxes, and held over their tenants many feudal rights.

Upon the third estate—the common people—fell almost the whole weight of taxation, greatly increased in amount by the greed of the officers to whom its collection was leased.

To make matters worse, not one of these three classes had any real share in the governing of the country, or in the fixing of taxes. The king's will was absolute; and though the provincial "parliaments," as they were called, sometimes protested against the king's orders, they had no power to refuse to put them in force. There had at one time been a sort of national assembly called the States-General, including representatives of the three classes, but this had not met since 1614—nearly two hundred years!

Louis XIV., that King of France against whom

Marlborough had won his famous victories, had been in the habit of saying : "*L'état, c'est moi*" — "I am the state," meaning that he alone spoke for France. It was greatly due to the misery caused by his wars that public discontent rose to so dangerous a height in the reigns of the kings who followed him.

Louis XV. cared nothing whatever about his country or his people. "It will last my time," he used to say. He passed his life in low pleasures, leaving the government to his favourites, preferring those who could get him most money with the least trouble. His will was still supposed to be law—there was no parliament—but in reality the court party ruled both king and country. When he died France was in a deplorable state. Its trade had well-nigh vanished ; its principal foreign possessions had been captured by the British, and it was heavily in debt.

Louis XVI., who became king in 1774, was the worst possible king for such troublous times. He was a good and kindly man, neither vicious and extravagant like Louis XV., nor ambitious and masterful like Louis XIV. ; but he was slow and dull, and without strength of will or firmness of character.

Unfortunately, he allowed himself to be drawn into the war between Great Britain and her

American colonies, and thus re-opened the old quarrel which had cost France so many thousands of lives and millions of treasure. Neither profit nor glory fell to the share of France when the war ended in 1783, and several millions had been added to her huge debt.

So difficult did the king's ministers find it to raise money even for court expenses that they advised Louis to call together the chief men of the kingdom, so that they might consult as to what was to be done. This was in 1787.

The "Notables," as they were termed, were brought together, but they could not agree as to the way in which money should be raised. After some fruitless meetings they were sent home again.

Affairs, however, became worse instead of better, and the king was persuaded to summon the States-General, as representing the whole nation; and it was not long before he found that he had called into existence a strong and determined master. The discontent had at last found a means of making itself heard.

The Third Estate, or Commons, declared itself the chief body, inviting the members of the First and Second Estates—the Clergy and the Nobility—to join it. Instead of supplying the king with money it began to demand the redress of grievances. The king, was foolish

enough to threaten to dissolve the assembly, and so weak as to draw back when the members told him that nothing but bayonets should disperse them.

The Commons, or Third Estate, together with some of the clergy and nobility, now declared themselves the National Constituent Assembly of France, and swore not to separate until they had drawn up a Constitution. There was little talk as yet of setting up a republic.

The States-General met for the first time for nearly two hundred years on the 5th of May, 1789; and little more than two months had passed before it was clear that the old order of things was to be swept away. On the 14th of July the Paris mob stormed and captured the Bastille, the state prison of France, slaughtering the Swiss guards who had bravely defended it for several hours.

The temper of the mob was becoming more dangerous, and the king's weakness was turning the feelings of his people against him. Louis had hired a number of foreign troops to guard him at Versailles, just outside Paris; but when he heard of the taking of the Bastille, he dismissed them and went to live in Paris, intending to soothe the people by showing that he trusted them.

The fall of the Bastille acted like a trumpet

call. All over the country the common people rose against the nobility and clergy, attacking and sacking castles and convents. Many owners of property hastened to surrender it and their rights to the nation ; but others, fleeing from France, joined the forces rapidly being gathered by the sovereigns of other countries to assist their brother of France.

In the meantime the National Assembly got through a wonderful amount of useful work. France was divided into departments, the old provinces with their feudal rights being swept away ; the various associations which had hampered trade were abolished, and a code of laws was promised, according to which equal rights should be given to all men. The old cumbrous system of taxation was replaced by a simpler method of raising money from taxes upon commerce, land, and incomes.

The estates of the “émigrés,” as the nobles were called who had fled from France, were sold, as were also the lands belonging to the clergy, the State agreeing in return to pay the clergy and to provide for religious services.

Events now moved very rapidly. All titles were abolished in 1790, and in the next year the king, attempting to flee to Germany, was captured and brought back as a prisoner.

A new Constitution was drawn up ; and in

1792, the Assembly which met according to this Constitution deprived the king of all authority. It was believed that while pretending to carry out the wishes of the nation he was plotting with the foreign princes.

War had at last broken out, and the French forces had been defeated. The mob, believing the defeat due to the treachery of the king, stormed his palace, slew his guards, and removed the last vestige of his royal power.

A National Convention taking the place of the Assembly proclaimed a republic. Frenchmen were called upon to come forward and enrol themselves in the army, and hundreds of the king's friends were put to death.

The newly-recruited French army gained two victories, not only rolling back the Prussians from the eastern frontier, but overrunning the whole of what is now called Belgium.

But the Convention was soon ruled by men of cruel natures, and the "Reign of Terror" began. Marat, Danton, and Robespierre were the leaders in this dreadful work of slaying many of the best and bravest sons and daughters of France.

After the merest mockery of a trial, those judged to be enemies of the republic were sentenced to be executed by the guillotine. King and queen shared the same fate in 1793, the king in January and the queen in October.

Then the spectacle was witnessed of one party after another obtaining supreme power, and sentencing the members of the other parties to death. Fourteen thousand persons are said to have perished by the guillotine in six weeks.

Immediately after the execution of the French king, Pitt withdrew the British ambassador from Paris. Though anxious to avoid war, he was becoming alarmed at the rapid growth of republican ideas at home. He considered the disorder in France must be ended if the rest of the world was to be saved from horrors of the same kind. The French, too, had seized Antwerp, and had declared their intention of making it a naval port, thus threatening Britain.

Toulon, in the south of France, fell into British hands, and was besieged by a powerful French force, the artillery being commanded by a young officer named Napoleon Bonaparte, twenty-four or twenty-five years of age. Chiefly, it is said, owing to his genius, the British were compelled to abandon the town, first burning the French arsenal and fleet.

Napoleon Bonaparte, whose correct name was Nabulione or Napoleon Buonaparte, was a native of Corsica, the large Mediterranean island lying to the south of France. He was of Italian ancestry, and had to learn French as a foreign language.

At the age of ten, or thereabouts, he was sent to the military school of Brienne, in France, where he showed himself silent, haughty, fond of being alone, and full of self-love and ambition. He was not a clever lad, though fond of geography and mathematics. He seems to have had rather a bad time of it among his school-fellows, who mocked and jeered at his Corsican dialect, his foreign-sounding name, and the unavailing struggle Corsica had made to free herself from French rule.

Napoleon remained at Brienne for about five years and a half, and, after another year's study in the military school at Paris, was appointed sub-lieutenant of artillery.

When the Revolution broke out he left his regiment — deserted — and made his way to Ajaccio, the capital of Corsica. At this time he seems to have been filled with the ambition of separating Corsica from France, and of becoming its ruler. He used very questionable means to get himself elected lieutenant-colonel of the volunteers, and then attempted to seize the town.

This attempt was made about Easter, 1792, and failed miserably; Napoleon had to flee for his life to France. Here he would probably have been tried and shot as a deserter; for the king still reigned in name, and the old army rules remained in force.

The war with Prussia and Austria, however, was just breaking out; affairs were in confusion, and he was able to reach Paris without being arrested. A school friend named Bourrienne, was his only companion. Together they saw the mob attack the Palace of the Tuileries, slay the Swiss guards, and lead the king to the window with a republican cap on his head.

"What folly," exclaimed Bonaparte, "to allow those wretches to enter! A few discharges of grape-shot would have made them take to their heels."

This was the beginning of the Second Revolution, in which the kingly authority was finally abolished and a republic set up. After the terrible riots of August 10th of this year—1792—the king was thrown into prison, and afterwards tried for his life.

So great now was the need of trained officers that Napoleon was pardoned and given the rank of captain. Returning to Ajaccio, he took part in the fruitless attack upon the island of Sardinia. The Corsicans, shocked at the excesses of the republican party in Paris, talked of separating from France. Napoleon, now taking the French side, tried to seize Ajaccio, but was again compelled to flee.

A pamphlet which he wrote about this time brought him before the notice of one leader of

the extreme republican party, and helped to procure him the position of lieutenant-colonel of artillery in the army besieging Toulon.

When this place fell, Napoleon was made brigadier-general of artillery, and sent to serve with the Army of the South, which was about to commence its campaign against Piedmont.

Napoleon was now high in favour with the Robespierre party, and in July, 1794, was sent to Genoa to strengthen the wavering alliance of the Genoese with the French Republic. In this, his first attempt at statesmanship, he was successful; but the revolution of the 27th and 28th of that month ended in the downfall of the Robespierre party, and Napoleon, as one of their friends, was placed under arrest.

The management of affairs was now entrusted to five men—the Directory—while two bodies were charged with the making of laws. These bodies were known as the Council of the Five Hundred, and the Council of Ancients.

Napoleon was released in a fortnight, but was reduced in rank and sent to serve in the Army of the West, engaged in civil war against the people of Brittany and Lower Normandy, who were fighting for church and king.

Napoleon refused to join the Army of the West except as general of the artillery, and was, in consequence, dismissed from the army!

All his fine plans and bounding ambition seemed to have ended in ruin. He lived in obscure poverty with Bourrienne, at times being obliged to pawn his books in order to procure food. He is said to have thought at one time of starting a bookstall, and at another to have been on the brink of suicide.

He contrived, however, to keep his name before the Directory by offering to lead two thousand five hundred artillerymen to Constantinople, and there form them into the nucleus of a Turkish army to be used against Russia.

An accident restored him to rank and power. The mob rose against the Directory, gaining a first success against the officer sent to disperse them. In this extremity, Bonaparte was appointed second in command to Barras, the General of the Army of the Interior, and ordered to put down the rebellion. This he quickly did with grape-shot. Barras resigned, and Napoleon was appointed to the vacant position—one of the most important in France. He strengthened his position by marrying Joséphine de Beauharnais, a lady of uncommon beauty and very popular with the government.

Almost immediately after his marriage Napoleon left Paris to command the Army of Italy, the French force of about thirty-five thousand men intended to attack Austria by

way of the north of Italy. Against him were arrayed the forces of Piedmont and Austria—seventy-five thousand men under veteran leaders.

That Coalition which in 1793 had threatened to crush the young republic had fallen to pieces. Prussia, partly through jealousy of Austria, partly because the Poles revolted and attacked her in the rear, withdrew from the war and acknowledged the Republic. Belgium was overrun, and the Austrians were expelled; and in the next year, 1795, Holland was compelled to ally herself with France, her fleet being particularly welcome as an aid against the naval power of Britain. Spain had made peace shortly after Prussia, and Russia could never quite be trusted.

Though Britain, Austria, and Russia were still leagued against the republic, on the continent only Austria remained to be reckoned with. Carnot, who had for two years directed the operations of the armies, was now one of the Directory—the five men to whose care the management of affairs had been committed when Robespierre fell—and his plan was to make a grand attack across the Rhine, where the French forces had recently been beaten, and also to make a flank attack by way of Lombardy.

The difficulty was the want of cash to pay the troops and to provide them with food; but Napoleon soon settled this.

"Soldiers," he said, "you are half-clothed and half-fed; follow me to the most fruitful country in the world. There you shall find honour, fame, and money."

In a single month he had defeated the Austrians in three battles, and the Sardinians—the kingdom of Sardinia comprised not only the island of that name but also Piedmont—in two, never allowing the allies to make a junction. Sardinia, weary of the war, which had already cost her the two provinces of Savoy and Nice, submitted to the French, giving up her fortresses.

Milan and Lombardy quickly fell into Napoleon's hands, and large sums were demanded from the Italians and sent to Paris. The Italians, finding their liberators worse than their oppressors, revolted, but were subdued.

The Austrians still held Mantua, though closely beset by the French. Four armies were sent one after the other to raise the siege, and were one after the other defeated. At last, in January, 1797, Mantua yielded, and Napoleon was master of the north of Italy.

Taking no notice of the Directory—the Government of France—he made his own treaties with the pope and with the Italian states. Already he assumed the position of a dictator so far as French relations with Italy were concerned.

"The commissioners of the Directory have no

concern with my policy," he said; "I do what I please."

Peace was at length patched up at Campo Formio, Austria ceding Belgium and North Italy, while Napoleon gave up part of the Venetian territory.

The army was becoming the master of France, and its power was shown in the Revolution of September 4th, 1797—the Revolution of Fructidor, as it has been called from the republican name of the month in which it took place. The government was believed to be infected with a desire for peace; and as that would mean the disbanding of the army, the military leaders arrested those directors and members of the Councils who were suspected.

Hearing of these events, Napoleon decided to return to Paris, and thither he came in December much to the dismay of the Directory, who realised he was a most dangerous man.

In order to keep him away from the capital, they directed him to undertake the campaign against Britain, now the only formidable foe.

Thinking Britain could be attacked best in India, Napoleon embarked with a fine army at Toulon on the 19th May, 1798, his object being to occupy Egypt as a stepping-stone to India. On the way he took Malta from the Knights of St. John.

He was soon master of Egypt, but Nelson's victory at Aboukir Bay upset all his plans, destroying his fleet and imprisoning his army in the Land of the Pharaohs. After a fruitless attempt to occupy Syria, in which he was defeated by Sir Philip Sydney and the British fleet off Acre, he returned to Egypt. Leaving his army there, he managed to escape to France in October, 1799.

During his absence things had not gone well with the Directory. It had, by several foolish and violent acts, lost the confidence of the French people. It refused to pay interest upon more than one-third of the national debt; it demanded large money payments from those who had property; it passed a law compelling every man from twenty to twenty-five years of age to serve as a soldier.

Pitt had again brought the European Powers into a Coalition, Turkey as well as Russia joining them. Italy was again held by Austria, the French forces having been driven out of the country. Had it not been for the defeat of the British and Russians in Belgium and of the Russians in Switzerland, France would have been invaded by an overwhelming force.

When Napoleon arrived in Paris, he was hailed with joy by the people, who entreated him to deliver them from those who were ruining France.

It was the time for which he had waited ; and he was not slow to take advantage of it. Knowing that he had a considerable number of the ruling body on his side, he boldly commanded his soldiers to dissolve the Council of Five Hundred on 9th November, 1799. He was too wise, however, to assume the sole authority at that moment—France was not yet ripe for it. He became First Consul, dividing his power—in name only—with two other consuls.

Bonaparte was now chief magistrate of France ; to him alone belonged the power to appoint to public offices, to make war or peace ; under him were all army corps and their generals, and every state department was under his control. The Revolution was finally over ; France had found a new master.

He at once set to work to repair the fortunes of the country. His first step was to unite the people. "There are no longer Jacobins, or Moderates, or Royalists," he said ; "there are only Frenchmen." The churches were reopened, and the clergy of the Roman Catholic Church given back certain of their privileges, a working agreement, called a "Concordat," being drawn up between the consuls and the church. This gave great joy to many devout people, and brought Napoleon a host of supporters. Then he proclaimed an amnesty

for all Frenchmen who had fought against the republic—he agreed, that is, that by-gones should be by-gones. The result of this step was the closing of the war of La Vendée—the war of the West.

Napoleon now made peace with Prussia, and attempted to do the same with Britain; but Lord Grenville, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, believing France was exhausted, returned what was really a refusal to treat with Napoleon.

Bonaparte now crossed the Alps by the St. Bernard Pass, and fell upon the Austrians, who, with one hundred and twenty thousand men, were besieging the small French force holding Genoa.

A series of battles, ending in the crushing defeat of Marengo, laid northern Italy at the feet of the conqueror; and when, in the December of the same year, the Austrians were defeated by Moreau at Hohenlinden, in Bavaria, and Vienna itself was threatened, Austria hastened to make peace. By the Treaty of Lunéville, Austria gave up to France almost the whole of Italy except Venetia.

Only Britain and Portugal remained unconquered. The French army left in Egypt had been defeated at Aboukir—a land battle this time—and had finally been compelled to leave the country in April, 1801.

The northern powers—Russia, Prussia, Sweden,

and Denmark—had made a League of Neutrals against Great Britain in 1800; but the defeat of the Danish fleet by Nelson at Copenhagen in April, 1801, dissolved the league. Malta was taken by the British fleet, with the assistance of the Maltese, and shortly afterwards the Peace of Amiens was signed—27th March, 1802.

The gratitude of the French nation to Bonaparte was so heartfelt that he became the idol of the people. They made him consul for life, thus giving him unlimited power.

In the year of uneasy peace which followed the Treaty of Amiens, Napoleon laboured hard to give France a firm and lasting form of government. He had no belief in the dreams of such men as Rousseau; he believed in a strong form of government with one resolute ruler at its head. Over each department he placed a prefect with a council nominated by the central government—himself; over each sub-division of a department he placed a sub-prefect, also with a council nominated by the central government, and over each commune—something like our town council—he placed a mayor. He thus had an official of his own in each division of the country.

The councils were not allowed to frame any new laws, though they might suggest them.

The country was divided for the trial of law

cases into twenty-seven districts, each with its Court of Appeal. If the persons seeking justice were still unsatisfied after the decision of the Court of Appeal, they could take their case to the highest court of all—the Court of Cassation at Paris.

Under a system like this, law and order were soon restored ; property was secure, and trade began to revive. Napoleon established the Bank of France, and reorganised the money affairs of the country. Roads were made, bridges built, harbours deepened, and agriculture was encouraged.

The old nobility had been swept away, but Napoleon created a new nobility—the Legion of Honour. The cross of this order was given for valour alone, and its possession conferred upon its owner the very highest standing.

But the finest work of all was the compiling and arranging into a perfect system of all the conflicting and perplexing laws of the various provinces. To this work Napoleon gave himself heart and soul, showing a clearness of mind, and a happy way of getting at the heart and meaning of an obscure law which astonished those who worked with him. The Code Napoleon, as this fine collection of laws has been called, was undoubtedly the greatest of Napoleon's works, whether military or civil.



M. N.

Napoleon Bonaparte.

It was entirely good, and has been a blessing not only to France but to Central and Southern Germany, Italy, many of the Balkan countries, and some of those of South America, where it has been adopted as the national code of laws.

Another of his reforms was that positions either in the state or in the army should be occupied by those worthy to fill them. Promotion was to be entirely by merit. "Every soldier," he said, "carries in his knapsack a field-marshal's bâton." His greatest officers sprang from the working-classes.

He remodelled education, making every school a military academy, where boys were to be trained as soldiers of France and servants of Napoleon Bonaparte.

It may indeed be said that Napoleon instituted or reorganised everything in France. In order that he should have a regular supply of men for his armies, he insisted that the peasants should remain on the land, well knowing that the physique of countrymen is better than that of townsmen; and for this purpose he ordered that on the death of a proprietor his estate should not be left to his eldest son only, but divided equally amongst his children.

While thus ruling France with a strong hand, Napoleon kept a watchful eye on his neighbours, interfering whenever he thought French interests

were in danger. His power continued to grow, till at last he had himself proclaimed emperor. He placed on his own head and on that of his wife Joséphine a wreath of golden laurel leaves. Shortly afterwards, he was crowned King of Italy with the famous iron crown of Lombardy.

The European Powers were now thoroughly alarmed, and readily joined with Britain in another coalition. On his side, Napoleon was determined to humble Britain, and collected at Boulogne an army which he called the "Army of England." Had he been able to obtain a few days' command of the English Channel, he would probably have carried out his plan, but the defeat of his fleet by Nelson at Trafalgar in October, 1805, put an end to his hopes.

Turning aside from his first intention, he hurled his army at the Austrians under General Mack, completely defeating him at Ulm, and entering Vienna on the 13th of November. Three weeks later he routed the combined forces of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz.

This victory broke up the coalition, and hastened the death of Pitt, who saw that nothing now could stay the progress of the conqueror.

Napoleon next made his brother Louis King of Holland, and his brother Joseph King of the two Sicilies—Naples and the Island of Sicily. The smaller German states he formed into the

“Confederation of the Rhine,” with himself as Protector.

Frederick William of Prussia, becoming alarmed for the safety of his own kingdom, declared war against Napoleon in 1806. He had a splendid army and was believed to be more than a match for the French. But at Jena the emperor defeated him with tremendous loss, and, following up the retreating army, captured nearly the whole of what was left of it—more than one hundred thousand men. Frederick William escaped into Russia with a few thousand followers, and Napoleon entered Berlin in triumph.

The emperor next invaded Russia, and after beating the Russians dictated to Russia and Prussia the Treaty of Tilsit. One provision of this treaty carved out a new kingdom of Westphalia from the Prussian dominions, and over it Napoleon set his brother Jerome.

In order to ruin Britain, Napoleon next issued the famous “Berlin Decrees,” commanding the nations of Europe to shut out from their ports all British merchandise. Britain replied by the “Orders in Council,” which proclaimed a blockade of all the European ports. Since the people of the continent were not to be allowed to trade with Britain, Britain determined that they should trade with no one.

Spain was next invaded, and the crown given

to Napoleon's brother Joseph, one of his officers being made King of the two Sicilies. Portugal had refused to obey the Berlin Decrees, and Lisbon was occupied by French troops.

The patriotism of the Spaniards and Portuguese was roused by this high-handed treatment, and the whole peninsula rose against the French. Portugal appealed for help to the British, who responded gladly. It was the first rising of a *people* against the conqueror—all the previous wars had been waged against him by princes.

To follow the course of the Peninsular War, during which the French troops were driven out of Portugal and Spain by the British under Arthur Wellesley—afterwards the Duke of Wellington—would take more space than can be given in this little book; but, at last, in the spring of 1814, France was invaded and Marshal Soult defeated at the battle of Toulouse.

When the war broke out in Spain, the British hastened to make another alliance with Austria, and Napoleon had to hurry from Madrid to face the Austrian troops in South Germany. Once more he defeated them, this time at Wagram in the month of August, 1809; and amongst the conditions of peace, the emperor was obliged to consent to the marriage of his daughter, Maria Louisa, with Napoleon. In order to marry her, Napoleon divorced his wife Joséphine; but he

hoped that the new marriage would bind Austria to France in a lasting alliance.

Seizing the throne of Spain was Napoleon's first great blunder ; but he made a much greater mistake when he set out with an army of six hundred thousand men to invade Russia, and thence march on to British India. The story of his disastrous retreat from burning Moscow across the frozen plains of Russia and Poland, with the rapidly dwindling remains of his splendid army, is one of the most terrible in the records of war.

It was the beginning of the end. Encouraged by the fate of the grand army, Prussia and the other German states united once more with Austria. Napoleon struggled to avert the fate looming over him, but at the three days' battle of Leipzig he was crushed by the allied armies of Austria, Prussia, Russia, and the German states. Escaping across the Rhine into France, he made desperate efforts to check the tide of disaster ; but when the allies occupied Paris, he was compelled to surrender.

His escape from Elba, of which small island he had been made ruler, and the flight of the king placed by the allies on the throne of France, seemed in 1815 to threaten a reopening of all the old troubles ; but his defeat at Waterloo by Wellington and Blucher ended the danger.

Napoleon surrendered to the British, and was condemned to imprisonment for life on the lonely island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821. Years afterwards his ashes were taken to Paris and there interred in a splendid tomb.

The character of Napoleon Bonaparte is full of perplexing contradictions. He was one of the greatest military leaders the world has known; but the brilliance of his victories cannot blind us to the grave defects in his own moral nature. He seldom told the truth, never kept a promise if it was to his interest to break it, or believed the word of friend or enemy. His treatment of poor, foolish, loving Joséphine shows him to be as heartless as he was ambitious—indeed, his contempt and want of consideration for women are shown throughout his whole career. He was utterly regardless of human life, sacrificing his devoted soldiers without remorse in the carrying out of his ambitious schemes.

To the beaten enemy he showed no mercy; he cared nothing for the sufferings his mad plans brought upon his own country; there is not a single noble or disinterested deed recorded of him. He worshipped no god but himself and his own ambition—though he was willing at one time to become a Mohammedan to win the Egyptians to his side, and bowed to the authority of the pope in order to secure a divorce.

Yet, as a law-giver and a statesman, he showed ability far beyond that of ordinary men ; and it is in this direction that his deeds proved a blessing to more countries than his own.

All this useful work was finished in the earlier days of his power. His later years, when he attempted to conquer Europe in order to conquer Britain, exhausted his country, destroyed the flower of her manhood, and left her an heritage of hatred by the other nations of Europe which has hardly yet passed away.

V. Prince Metternich.

IN the conflict between Napoleon and the sovereigns of Europe, which ended in 1815 at Waterloo, no nation contributed more to the downfall of the tyrant than Austria, though her victories were few and her defeats many.

Austria has had a most varied and interesting history. Beginning as a Roman province, that part of the country where Vienna now stands was in turn part of the empire of Charlemagne, a subject state to Bavaria, a duchy under the protection of the Emperor of Germany, and a conquered province of Bohemia. You may remember that it was Leopold, Duke of Austria, whom Richard of England offended in the Holy Land, and who afterwards made him prisoner. Rudolph of Hapsburg, Emperor of Germany, wrested the province from the Bohemians in 1276, and made his son its sovereign.

Under the Hapsburgs, Austria increased steadily in size, influence, and power. Province after province was added to her dominions, some by war, some by marriages of her rulers, and

some by clever policy. In 1437 her ruler, Albert II., was made King of the Romans and Emperor of Germany.

Another ruler became King of Spain and of the Indies, while remaining Emperor of Germany and King of the Romans, and so was the most powerful monarch of his time.

The province of Alsace, west of the Rhine, together with the Netherlands, at one time formed part of the Austrian dominions; Hungary, Bohemia, Silesia, and other provinces were added by the marriage of one of her emperors with the daughter of the King of Hungary—though this was so little to the liking of the Hungarians that they called to their aid the Sultan of Turkey, who twice reached the walls of Vienna with his conquering army.

The Thirty Years' War, in the earlier half of the seventeenth century, would have left Austria mistress of all Europe, had it not been for the victories of Gustavus Adolphus, the King of Sweden.

The long duel between the Hapsburgs of Austria and the Bourbons of France—the ruling families of the two countries—commenced about this time, the throne of Spain being the prize for which they strove.

The people of Hungary, revolting in 1683, called the Turks once more to their assistance;

and Vienna was saved only by the heroic efforts of the Germans and the Poles.

The struggle between the Hapsburgs and the Bourbons did not give to the Austrian line the throne of Spain, but it added to their dominions the Spanish Netherlands and Milan, Mantua, Naples, and Sardinia in Italy.

There is not space to follow the fortunes of the country and of its rulers in detail. The one great fact which must be remembered is that an intense rivalry grew up gradually between Austria and Prussia, the two strongest of the German States. Each wished to be recognised as the head of the German confederation. The wrongful seizure of Silesia by Frederick the Great of Prussia in 1740, and the unavailing efforts of Maria Theresa of Austria to recover it, further embittered the feeling between the two states, and added to that distrust of each other which in later years assisted Napoleon's plans of conquest.

But it was largely owing to the untiring efforts of an Austrian statesman that Napoleon was in the end overthrown. This statesman was Prince Metternich, and his history is interesting as showing that, great as the power of a conqueror may be while he is successful, he is no match in the long run for the man who keeps his head above all the turmoil, and waits patiently till his chance shall come.

Clement Metternich was the son of an Austrian noble, himself a statesman, who secured for his son, after his education at Strasburg, Mayence, Coblentz, and Brussels, a post in the service of the Emperor of Austria.

At Mayence, he stayed for two years—two years which had much to do with his after life ; for they were the years between 1790 and 1792, when the nobles were leaving France, because of the Revolution. Many took up their residence at Mayence, and since they were of the same class as that to which Metternich belonged, he saw much of them, and from them imbibed that deep and undying hatred of the Revolution and its leaders which, in after years, made him so unyielding an enemy to Napoleon.

During his early training he had on more than one occasion been present at state functions, and had made the acquaintance of many people of high rank, to whom his handsome person and graceful manners commended him.

When he was about twenty-one he visited London in the suite of the Minister from the Netherlands, getting to know several English statesmen, Pitt, Fox, and Burke among others. He also had the pleasure of seeing the start from Portsmouth of the fleet which, under Lord Howe, beat the French off Brest, on the “glorious First of June.”

After serving for a short time as Austrian ambassador at the Hague, he was recalled by his father to Vienna, and shortly afterwards married to the bride chosen for him by his parents.

He had not before his marriage cared much about the life of a statesman ; but his wife came of a famous line of statesmen and warriors, and his association with her family did something to wean him from those studies of art and science to which he would have preferred to devote himself.

In 1801, when about twenty-eight years of age, he was appointed Austrian Ambassador to the court of Dresden, the capital city of Saxony. Dresden was very favourably situated for any one wishing to know what was going on between Germany and Russia, and the young diplomatist was able to send to his emperor valuable information.

At Dresden, he stayed till the summer of 1803, when he was appointed ambassador to the Prussian court at Berlin. This was a much more important post, for at Berlin he was expected to bring about an alliance of Austria, Britain, and Prussia against Napoleon, who was proclaimed emperor of the French in the May of the next year.

Britain and France were again at war. Napoleon was busy with his scheme of invasion,

and our statesmen were doing their utmost to induce the continental nations to attack the French on land, so that his vast army should be needed to ensure the safety of his own dominions.

Austria was ready and willing to join Britain ; but feared that if Prussia held aloof, or, worse still, allied herself with Napoleon, Austria might, in the case of defeat, find herself taking second place to Prussia among the German states.

Russia was eager to wipe out her former defeat by the French, and her emperor, Alexander, asked Metternich to assist the Russian ambassador in persuading the King of Prussia to join the allies. The utmost they could obtain, however, from the King of Prussia was a promise that he would hold himself neutral, and that he would declare war upon any power whose troops crossed his frontier.

It must be understood, by the way, that when at this time we speak of Austria, or Russia, or Prussia, or Spain declaring war against France, we mean that their rulers declared war against that country—so far, there had been no national rising against the military sway of Napoleon. It is, indeed, more than probable that the people of the smaller states were secretly well pleased when their own domestic tyrant met with his master.

You will remember that Napoleon, despairing of being able to invade Britain, suddenly withdrew his army from Boulogne and hurled it against Austria. The defeat of the Austrians at Ulm, and of the Austrians and Russians at Austerlitz, led to the Treaty of Presburg, which took from Austria some of her finest provinces, gave Hanover to Prussia, and broke up the old German Empire.

Prussia had played a double game, and had for the time won. Her power was greatly increased, and that of Austria diminished.

It seemed at first sight that Metternich's clever and skilful diplomacy had been of no avail: Napoleon was stronger than ever, and Prussia had come nearer to her ambition of being the strongest German state. But it had made him the trusted friend of the Russian Emperor, and it had won for him the confidence of the Emperor of Austria. He was chosen to represent Austria in Napoleon's own court at Paris—and so to fill the most honourable position in the Austrian service.

Metternich hated with all his heart everything revolutionary; and he hated most of all Napoleon Bonaparte, whom he considered the enemy of all properly constituted law and order. It mattered not to him that Napoleon ruled France as a despot—that he had drawn up and

put into operation a system of government under which the ruler had supreme power and the people none ; Metternich's ideal state was one where the sovereign ruled by right of succession—by divine right, as he would have put it—and where the common people had no share in the making of laws or the fixing of taxes.

Napoleon, on the other hand, liked the Austrian very much—he had, indeed, asked that the young diplomat might be appointed ambassador to the French court. Even when Metternich was steadily working against him, and even when Napoleon must have been well aware of it, he gave continual proofs of the esteem in which he held the Austrian ambassador.

Austria's chief wish at this time was to prevent war between France and Prussia until she had recovered from the defeats of Ulm and Austerlitz. Prussia alone, she felt, could not stand against the terrible Corsican, and, if Prussia fell, Napoleon would have no difficulty in making himself master of Europe.

But Prussia was herself beginning to be alarmed at the rapidly increasing power of the French Emperor ; and in 1806 her king made an alliance with Britain and Russia and declared war.

This was exactly what Napoleon wanted ; and by his victories over the Prussians at Jena, and

over the Russians at Friedland, in little over six months he had crushed Prussia, and taken half her territory, besides fining her twenty-six million pounds for declaring war against him.

Russia having been compelled to become the ally of France, Napoleon felt strong enough to attempt to bring about the ruin of Britain by his "Continental System," according to which her manufactures would be excluded from every European port. He also set about the conquest of Spain, and so began, as he himself expressed it, that "Spanish ulcer" which ate up his armies and his resources, and was finally amongst the main causes of his downfall.

Metternich was still in Paris, working secretly, and finding that Napoleon had not one sincere friend in Europe. His mission was to conceal from Napoleon, till he should have become too deeply involved in Spain to be able to draw back, that Austria was getting ready for another war.

When he visited Vienna towards the end of 1808, he was astonished to find the preparations for war so far forward, and he went back to Paris so that he might let his emperor know when the proper moment had arrived.

The blow was struck just a fortnight too soon for Austria; Napoleon had once more shown himself more astute than his enemies; Vienna



M.N.

Prince Metternich.

was occupied by the French, and Metternich found himself a prisoner at Grünberg. Napoleon was, however, still desirous of peace; he had his hands more than full in Spain and Portugal, and he was anxious to get back into that peninsula.

It was in vain that he tried to obtain terms from Metternich or the emperor; they still believed they could win, and they also believed that one solid victory would bring Russia to their assistance. So the battle of Wagram took place, in which the Austrians were again defeated.

As a result of this defeat Austria had to cede the whole of her Adriatic coast and half of her share of Poland, and to limit her army to one hundred and fifty thousand men.

Metternich seemed again to have failed, but he was still hopeful. He believed Napoleon's success would beget in him a feeling of false confidence—that he would think he had nothing in the future to fear from Austria; and he set himself to foster that feeling by every means in his power.

He was now Prime Minister, and the emperor's close friend and chief adviser. He counselled Francis to accede to Napoleon's request for the hand of his daughter Marie Louise, his object being still further to delude Napoleon as to the

feeling of Austria towards him. It was to Madame Metternich that Napoleon first mentioned his wish ; it was Metternich alone who was with the emperor when Napoleon's messenger arrived with the offer, and it was he who went afterwards to interview Marie Louise and to win her consent to the union.

The match having been decided upon, the minister was at his own request sent to Paris in the year 1810. The emperor received him with many marks of favour, and treated him with great kindness. Once he admitted that if Austria had reopened the war after the battle of Wagram, he should have been lost. Metternich never forgot this admission.

During his stay in Paris he learnt from Napoleon himself that in two years' time he intended once more to invade Russia, and to set up a Polish kingdom. For this purpose he should need to take from Austria some of the provinces of the old kingdom of Poland ; but he asked if the Austrians would not consider their Adriatic provinces a fair exchange.

This proposal, by revealing what were Napoleon's plans, showed Metternich that his best course was carefully to husband Austria's resources, to strengthen her army—he had induced Napoleon to agree that the limitation of the army should not be insisted upon—and

so to get her ready for the struggle which must come when Napoleon invaded Russia.

He now endeavoured to bring about a similar method of government to that under which Napoleon ruled France. This was the setting up of a Council of State, similar to the Star Chamber of England's Charles I., the members of which should not be elected by the people but selected by the ruler. Their duty would be to advise the emperor, and to relieve him of all routine and tiresome work; but the right of making laws, of fixing taxes, and of making war or peace would still belong to the emperor.

The selection of these advisers from the various provinces of the empire would delight the people of those provinces, and cause them to think they had an important part in the framing of the laws; but it would really, as in the case of Napoleon, fix in the person of the ruler the entire force of the empire, enabling him to throw its whole strength in any desired direction at very short notice.

Metternich also established a secret alliance with the King of Prussia, whose people, galled by Napoleon's tyranny, were now as anxious as their sovereign to bring about his downfall.

In Napoleon's disastrous Russian campaign of 1812, thirty thousand Austrians and thirty thousand Prussians formed part of his forces; neither

took any leading part in the war, but the Austrian troops were not turned at once against him as were the Prussian forces, when it was seen that the tide of fortune had changed.

Metternich aimed to keep out of the struggle until the combatants had exhausted each other, and then, with the untouched strength of Austria, to interpose between them as mediator. Had Napoleon not been blinded by his belief that the Emperor Francis would not act against him—his own son-in-law—he would without doubt have seen through the scheme. But he thought all along that Austria would be willing to help him, so that she might not only regain her lost provinces, but also share the booty snatched from conquered Russia and Prussia.

In this belief he began the campaign of 1813; but on the way to his army he received from his ambassador at Vienna a despatch telling him of the double game the Austrian was playing. Napoleon still, however, believed that a decisive victory would bring Austria to his side. He gained two victories, neither of which could perhaps be called decisive; but, still trusting in the good-will of Austria, he agreed to a truce.

During this truce Metternich met the Emperor of Russia, and a treaty was drawn up between Russia, Prussia, and Austria for the final overthrow of Napoleon. During all this time, it must be

borne in mind, Metternich was posing as mediator. The fact is he was a stronger and wilier man than the Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, or the Emperor of Austria ; and he saw that he would be in fact, if not in name, ruler of Europe, if he could secure Napoleon's downfall.

He had another interview with Napoleon in which he set out the impossible terms upon which Austria would consent to aid him, and in which he was asked how much he had received from Britain to bribe him to desert the cause of his emperor's son-in-law. Metternich allowed the insult to pass without answer ; but his hatred of Napoleon became even more intense, as did also his resolve to crush him.

He still, however, contrived to hoodwink his opponent, and obtained an extension of the truce, his object being to allow the Austrian army time to make its final preparations.

The three days' battle of Leipzig, which followed a partial success of Napoleon's at Dresden, ended in the rout of the French by the Austrians, Russians, and Prussians, and their flight to the French side of the Rhine. Here Napoleon carried on a heroic struggle against the allies, but was in the end compelled to abdicate. To show his gratitude for what his minister had done, the Emperor of Austria created Metternich a prince.

When the allies were debating as to Napoleon's

successor, Metternich showed clearly the line of policy which he was to follow for more than thirty years. The Russian Emperor wished to allow the French to choose their own sovereign. To this Metternich said that he would never agree, as the only rightful sovereign was the next of the Bourbon line—the line of the old kings of France. He even threatened to withdraw the Austrian forces if the Russian Emperor persisted in talking of “appealing to the voice of the Revolution.”

After the fall of Napoleon came the Congress of Vienna, the gathering of the despots of Europe to divide the lands over which the conqueror had held sway. Here the conflicting interests of the various sovereigns caused a crisis which grew daily more acute. Russia and Prussia, which had certainly been saved from absolute ruin by Austria, made such excessive demands for territory that Austria, Britain, and France—for France, now ruled by Louis XVIII., was of course represented at the Congress—were driven more and more closely into alliance.

It is possible that, in spite of Metternich's exertions to maintain matters on a friendly footing, open war would have resulted, had not the news arrived that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and landed in France. Metternich had strongly protested against his being imprisoned so near

to France, but had been overruled by the Emperor of Russia.

During the "hundred days" that ended at Waterloo, Metternich did useful work in inducing the powers to ally themselves against Napoleon, and to agree that none of them should come to terms with the invader.

After all this trouble had simmered down, the peoples of Europe naturally expected that their sufferings and their patriotism would bring them a larger measure of liberty; but in this they reckoned without Metternich and his Continental System.

Chiefly through his agency—though the notion first came from the Czar—the three sovereigns of Austria, Russia, and Prussia bound themselves by a "Holy Alliance" to assist each other in putting down any attempt on the part of their people to rise as the French had done. In this policy Metternich, now the chief statesman of Europe, took a leading part. He looked upon himself as the guardian of the European states against revolutionary ideas and the wars that followed their outbreak.

Britain would not, of course, consent to be a party to such a compact, but France and Spain, under their Bourbon rulers, had much sympathy with it, and Turkey looked upon it with friendly eyes.

The dangers to the system came from the national hopes of the Poles, the wish of the north German peasantry to be regarded as free men, the awakening of something like a national spirit in the provinces of Italy, the desire of the Greeks to throw off the rule of the Turks, and the vast growth of liberal thought in the years since the Revolution.

King Frederick William of Prussia had promised to his subjects, as a reward for their splendid help in his struggle against Napoleon, some form of Constitution and National Assembly ; but the Austrian minister soon convinced him that this would be unwise, and the king broke his solemn promise.

A conference held at Carlsbad was attended by representatives of all the German states. This conference agreed that the liberty of the press must be curbed ; that the universities must be carefully watched, and professors suspected of liberal feelings removed ; and that a commission should be appointed to inquire into any suspected conspiracy against any of the rulers. Shortly afterwards, Metternich obtained from most of the German princes an agreement that they would not grant Constitutions to their subjects—and this in spite of one clause in the Treaty of Vienna, which promised that they should be granted.

Metternich had now got his way. Except Britain and Switzerland, and perhaps Portugal, every European state was ruled by an absolute monarch ; in none of them, with those three exceptions, had the people a real voice in their own affairs. The Austrian statesman believed that by his work Europe had been saved from revolution, and been given a lasting peace.

In 1820, however, he was startled by the news that the people of Naples had rebelled against their king—one of the Bourbon family—and had compelled him to grant them a Constitution. Metternich called a conference, at which were present the Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia, representatives of France and Britain, and many of the foremost statesmen of the continent. This conference resolved to employ Austrian troops to put down the rebellion in Naples and Sicily. While the soldiers were carrying out their appointed task in the south of Italy, news arrived that the people of Piedmont, in the north of Italy, had also risen, and the troops were ordered to restore peace in that kingdom.

The people of Lombardy—one of the Austrian provinces of Italy—had to be repressed ; but this was as yet a fairly easy task.

Metternich now called together a congress at Verona, to decide upon the measures to be taken,

to replace the Bourbon King of Spain upon the throne from which he had been driven by his subjects. At this congress there were present the Emperors of Russia and Austria, the King of Prussia, the King of Naples, the King of Sardinia, the Duke of Wellington, representing England, representatives of France, and other princes and statesmen. The congress agreed, Wellington alone being against the proposal, that France should send troops into Spain, and reseat Ferdinand upon his throne.

Metternich's plan was being very hardly tried, but, so far, it had prevailed. It received, however, a check in the Balkan Peninsula, where Greece was fighting bravely for independence, winning several battles against the Turks. The question was complicated by the ancient enmity of Russ and Turk, which prompted the Czar to assist the Greeks, so that he might weaken the Turks and perhaps snatch from the Sultan some of his northern provinces.

As time went on, the danger—from Metternich's point of view—increased. Britain was strongly in favour of Greek independence, and the new Czar, Nicholas, was not so easy a man to influence as his brother Alexander had been. Britain, France, and Russia at last, in July, 1827, formed an alliance against Turkey. The Austrian statesman had done his best to prevent this alliance,

and had succeeded in keeping Prussia from joining it.

The alliance resulted in the destruction of the Turkish and Egyptian fleets at Navarino by the British and French fleets, the victory of Russia over the troops of the Sultan, and the recognition by that monarch of the independence of Greece. Alarmed at the successes of the Russians, Metternich obtained the help of Britain and France in bringing about a peace.

The year 1830 brought him a load of anxiety, for it seemed as though his "system" was crumbling to pieces. In France, the people expelled their king and chose another belonging to the same family; but as he was peaceful, and rather inclined to be a despot than a constitutional monarch, the danger from that quarter did not seem—for the time, at least—to be very alarming.

Lord Palmerston, the British foreign minister, however, was helping the rebels of Spain and Portugal with money and influence, while numbers of British volunteers joined their ranks. In the end the rebels were successful. They expelled their despotic kings, and set upon the throne of each country a young queen ruling as a constitutional monarch.

Belgium also rose against the King of Holland, and was assisted by a French army and a British

fleet. In a short time its independence was recognised, and it also became a constitutional monarchy.

Hungary and Italy now began to give trouble. Of Italy we shall read in the next story ; it is necessary only to say that Metternich's measures of repression proved in the end unable to resist the rising power of a people determined to be independent.

Hungary had always been a danger to Metternich's system. It had a Constitution and a Diet or parliament—though the Diet had not met for twelve years when the minister, much against his will, was compelled to call it together in 1825. He wanted money, and, like Charles I., wished parliament to procure it for him by taxes. The Diet, however, spoke of grievances, especially of the substitution of the German tongue for their own Magyar language.

Each succeeding Diet showed still more unrest and made stronger demands, and the minister found himself compelled to make greater concessions. The popular party had found an able leader in Kossuth, whose vigorous forward policy wrung from the government reform after reform.

In Italy the Pope, Pius IX., came out boldly on the side of reform, whereupon the Austrian

sent troops to seize Ferrara. This place, however, he was compelled to give up, owing to the protest of Lord Palmerston.

Risings now occurred all over Italy, and Metternich's measures became like the efforts of one who would hold down the waves of the sea. In Germany the several states were one by one wringing reforms from their rulers.

Then came the "Year of Revolutions," 1848. The French expelled their king and formed a republic; the people of Saxony forced a Constitution from their monarch, and the Hungarians, under their leader, Kossuth, demanded various reforms.

Metternich still believed he could weather the storm; but the populace of Vienna, led by the students, forced their way into the castle and demanded his dismissal.

So fell the man who for more than thirty years had held the nations of Europe in an iron grip. So hated was he by the peoples of the Continent that he was obliged to flee for safety to Britain, returning to Vienna two years later, when the agitation had died down. His influence, however, was gone; his fall was final.

Metternich was of a cold, calculating nature, very patient and far-seeing. He was a born diplomat—a man whose thoughts it was next to impossible to read—who could hate intensely

without allowing his hatred to show itself in anger—whose nature lent itself perfectly to the playing of a double game.

There is abundant proof that his was the master mind that conceived the plan which finally ruined Napoleon and led to his abdication ; but the use he made of the power to which he succeeded shows him to have been almost, if not quite, as heartless and ambitious as Napoleon himself.

His downfall was hailed with joy, and his name, within a few years, half forgotten. Much of Napoleon's work still stands ; but that of Metternich was completely destroyed even before his own death in 1859.

VI. Cavour.

ABOUT the beginning of the eighteenth century, one of the northern states of Italy increased gradually in strength and influence, making judicious alliances—helping, that is to say, the winner in the frequent struggles among the greater powers—and receiving as her reward considerable additions to her territory. This was Savoy, whose ruler was made king by the Emperor of Germany in 1713, for the help he had given to the Austrians and their British allies under Marlborough against the French and Bavarians. He had also been given the Island of Sicily, but this was afterwards exchanged for the Island of Sardinia.

Sardinia, as the kingdom came to be called, continued to progress, till the outbreak of the wars of the French Revolution brought disaster to all the Italian states. The king retired to the island, leaving his continental realm in the hands of the French.

When Bonaparte fell in 1814, the King of Sardinia returned to Turin, the principal city of Piedmont, one of the provinces of his

kingdom. By the Treaty of Vienna, Genoa was added to his dominions.

The French occupation of Italy had done much to create an Italian national feeling. Italian soldiers had fought bravely in Napoleon's armies; the jealousies of the smaller states had very greatly disappeared, partly because Napoleon had joined them together in the creation of larger new states; the whole country had been roused by Napoleon's theft of the priceless examples of Italian art. But Sardinia only, of the ten states into which Italy was divided by the Treaty of Vienna, could be said to be really independent. The others were entirely under the sway of Austria-Hungary.

The tyranny of Austria helped to foster that national feeling which had begun to show itself under the sway of Napoleon. A common grievance, a common oppressor, reminded the Italians that they were, after all, one people, speaking one language, and having the same glorious past. The idea of a reunited Italy, free from the Alps to the southernmost point of Sicily, had taken root in the hearts of Italians, and found expression in the songs of their poets—though not yet in the call to arms of their children against the foreign foe.

Many Italians of the south, determined to overthrow Murat, whom Napoleon had made

King of Naples, formed themselves into a secret society. They called themselves the "Carbonari," or "Charcoal-burners," because their meetings were held in the huts of the charcoal-burners amongst the mountains of the Abruzzi. They became very powerful, and though at first defeated they at last helped in turning the French out of Naples.

The Bourbon king, Ferdinand, who took the place of Murat, when firmly seated on the throne, refused to grant the Constitution he had promised, and the Carbonari turned against him. That their opposition was a grave danger to Ferdinand's rule will be understood readily, when it is stated that their members numbered hundreds of thousands in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies alone.

From Naples the society spread all over Italy, thousands of patriots binding themselves by solemn oaths to fight for the emancipation of their country.

The revolution in Naples of the year 1820 was entirely the work of the Carbonari. The soldiers refused to fight against them—indeed, it was more than suspected that they wished to join them—and the king gave way, granting a Constitution, and swearing solemnly that he would maintain it.

Unfortunately, the Island of Sicily did not

like the terms of the Constitution, and revolted. The struggle gave an excuse to Austria—that is to say, to Metternich—to intervene. King Ferdinand, who had gone to discuss matters with the “Holy Alliance,” returned with fifty thousand Austrian soldiers, defeated the small force of patriots, and stamped out the rebellion. Sicily held out for some time, but was finally compelled to submit. Ferdinand took his revenge by persecuting the Carbonari, nearly eight hundred of whom were put to death in a single year.

Not many months after, a revolution in the kingdom of Piedmont showed how wide-spread and powerful was the society. The King of Piedmont, Victor Emmanuel I., was forced to abdicate, a course he took rather than grant the Constitution for which his people were clamouring.

The rebels had thought that Prince Charles Albert, whose views were believed to be much like their own, would now become king; but Victor Emmanuel's younger brother, the Duke of Genoa, claimed the throne and brought in the Austrians to support his claim. The rebels were defeated, and Charles Albert was exiled for four years. Once more Metternich and the “Holy Alliance” had triumphed.

Had the rebellion in Piedmont occurred a

little later, the patriots of Lombardy would have been able to help them; but it happened just then that their beloved leader, Count Confalonieri, was very ill. The fact, however, that they were able to help but little did not save them from the severe punishment meted out by Austria. Many were put to death, and many more were thrust into the dreadful dungeons of Spielberg, where they were kept in chains, half-starved, untended in illness, and denied news of their loved ones in Italy. No wonder many went mad from misery, or died from diseases caused by the horrible conditions under which they lived. Count Confalonieri was sent to Spielberg because he would not betray his friends; and there he stayed in wretchedness for thirteen years, his beautiful wife meanwhile dying heart-broken.

The revolution of 1830 in Paris brought hope to the Italian patriots, for it was understood that the new king of France would not let Austria interfere in the affairs of those Italian states which were independent, either in reality or in name. Rebellions had taken place in several states since 1821, but they had been put down with the help of Austria. Now it seemed that the Italians were to have a chance to win freedom from their own rulers without interference from outside.

But the risings in the Papal States, in Modena, and in Parma were suppressed as usual by Austrian troops, many of the rebels being punished with death or imprisonment. It is true the French occupied Ancona; but their occupation of that city did no service to the cause of the patriots.

In 1831, Prince Charles Albert came to the throne of Sardinia by the death of Charles Felix, the former Duke of Genoa, who had occupied it since the abdication of King Victor Emmanuel I.; but he had, while heir to the crown, signed an agreement, prepared by Prince Metternich and placed before him by Charles Felix, that he would not depart from the laws and form of government in force when he became king. This agreement was a secret one, but it had a great influence on the life and actions of the new sovereign.

Shortly after his accession, Charles Albert received a letter from Giuseppe Mazzini, the founder of the secret society known as "Young Italy," which was now to take up the work of freeing Italy from the rule of the foreigner.

Mazzini was only twenty-six years of age; but he had already suffered in the cause to which he had devoted his life, and was now an exile in France. He it was who at last brought the Italians to see that only by uniting could they strive with any chance of success against their

oppressors. The idea was no new one; it had been the dream of Italian poets, and even of Italian statesmen. The rebels at Bologna in 1831 first showed that it had taken root; for they fought under the tricolour of red, white, and green, representing the volcanic fires of Etna and Vesuvius, the snows of the Alps, and the pines of the Apennines.

Mazzini's letter to the King of Sardinia called on him to take up the national cause, and, in freeing Italy, to make for himself an undying name. Mazzini was himself a republican; but he wished for an Italy united and free more than he desired any particular form of government. His letter raised against him a host of powerful enemies, of whom the king himself was one; but its message spread like wildfire through Italy, and the Association of Young Italy gained members by the thousand. Italian sailors sought for fresh members among their countrymen in foreign ports. One of these converts was Giuseppe Garibaldi, afterwards to be the Sword of Italian Unity, as Mazzini was its prophet.

The earlier invasions and insurrections of the party were, however, unsuccessful. Mazzini was obliged to leave France for England, where he lived in poverty, upheld only by the faith that was in him—the certainty that at length his country would be united and free.

Mazzini always dreamed of Rome as the centre of a new Italy; but it was Massimo d'Azeglio, a painter and writer who had dwelt long in Rome, that first pointed out the way in which deliverance would come. He saw that force alone could overthrow the rule of Austria and of the pope; and he was never tired of reminding those to whom he spoke or wrote that only in Piedmont was there a force in any way independent.

Charles Albert, however, continued to walk warily. "I am between the dagger of the Carbonari and the chocolate of the Jesuits," he said upon one occasion, meaning that if he did nothing to free his country he would be killed by the popular party, and that if he tried to curb the power of the Church too greatly he might be poisoned by its angry supporters. In the meantime he kept his army ready and his treasury well filled, and he told Massimo d'Azeglio that when the right time came, his own life and that of his sons, his army and his treasure, would all be devoted to the Italian cause.

In 1846 Pope Gregory XVI. died, and Pope Pius IX. was chosen to fill his high office. Pio Nono, as the people called him, was known to have keen sympathy with the wish of the patriots, and his accession was hailed with joy.

He was still more welcome to the people because he had not been made pope by Austrian influence, and for a time he was looked upon as a possible deliverer of the nation from its long bondage.

In the end, however, he proved not strong enough for the part the patriots expected him to play ; a plot was laid to seize him and bring back the state of affairs which had existed under the previous pope, and Austria took advantage of the disturbance to occupy the town of Ferrara. This step alarmed the people of the Papal States, who, with the pope's consent, began to hurry forward preparations for war.

Metternich did not mistake the signs of the times. What the Italians most desired was not reform of government, but freedom from Austrian rule, and he watched carefully what went on in Piedmont, which he knew was the danger spot. During all these years of unrest the national party in that kingdom had been gaining steadily in strength. One of its most powerful members was Camillo Benso di Cavour, the son of one of the Piedmontese nobility. Born in 1810, he was sent in 1820 to the Military Academy of Turin to receive an education which would fit him to become an officer in the Sardinian army. At the age of fourteen he became a page in the royal household of

King Charles Felix, still remaining, however, a student in the Academy.

As he grew older he began to show signs of that patriotism which afterwards so distinguished him, and had the honour of being closely watched by the police. He studied English literature and the lives of English statesmen, having already decided to become a statesman and not a soldier. Before he was twenty-five years of age he resigned his commission, and devoted himself to the cultivation of the family estates which had been much neglected, quickly becoming a skilled agriculturist and a clever man of business.

During the next fifteen years Cavour travelled much in England and in France, studying the institutions of the two countries and becoming acquainted with their most eminent men and women. Greatly admiring the English political system, he became desirous that his own country should have similar institutions.

Charles Albert desired complete independence, but did not wish his people to have any part in the government of his realm—that is to say, he was against the granting of a Constitution. One reform, however, he granted in 1847—the liberty of the press. Cavour, seeing what a powerful instrument for good a free press might become, started a newspaper,

giving it the name by which the whole national movement afterwards became known—*Il Risorgimento*.

Shortly after this Sicily rebelled against King Ferdinand, and demanded the Constitution granted during the English occupation of Sicily in 1812. The pope refused to allow Austrian troops to pass through his dominions, and the King of Naples, thus left without assistance, granted a Constitution to Naples as well as to Sicily. The Sicilians, however, would have nothing but the "English" Constitution; and they demanded separation from Naples. In the end they were subdued; but the struggle lasted more than a year.

Shortly after the granting of a charter by the King of Naples, the Grand Duke of Tuscany followed his example, and the news of these popular successes encouraged Cavour. At a meeting of journalists he advised that they should ask for a Constitution, and, though his attitude gained him many enemies amongst the nobility and amongst those who wished for a republic, the demand for a charter was made.

Charles Albert, bound by his secret promise to Prince Metternich, wished to abdicate; but after many sleepless nights he at last granted the Constitution. The people of Turin went nearly wild with joy, and made a hero of their king.

A few days after the formation of the new government, news came to Turin that Milan had risen against the Austrians, and was fighting desperately against the soldiers of the emperor. Now was the time for all Italian patriots to hasten to their help; but the King of Sardinia hesitated for four days. He was afraid that if he attacked Austria, Russia and England would join her. While he delayed, Milan won her freedom and that of Lombardy; Venice revolted under the Jew, Daniel Manin, and proclaimed herself a republic; the pope sent troops to help the patriots—though they were never intended to fight. The King of Naples sent also a body of troops—though he gave secret orders to their general to delay them as much as possible on the road, and the other princes of Italy either joined the national cause or fled.

Only Sardinia hesitated. A heart-stirring article from the pen of Cavour, printed in the columns of *Il Risorgimento*, ended the king's hesitation, and war against Austria was declared. Valuable time had, however, been lost, the campaign was badly conducted, and though the Sardinians fought with great bravery and won some successes, they were in the end obliged to retreat.

The pope now changed sides; but a rebellion of his people forced him to flee for safety to

Naples, and Rome was declared a republic with Mazzini as its head. In a short time King Charles Albert renewed the war against Austria, but being totally defeated at Novara, abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel. Only by abdication could he have saved his kingdom from occupation by the Austrians.

In this campaign Giuseppe Garibaldi took a small part, and upon its conclusion went to help the people of Rome against the French, who, however, succeeded in occupying the city and restoring the pope. The King of Naples tore up the Constitution he had granted; Milan and Venice were conquered by the Austrians, and the rebellion was over.

In Piedmont alone was there liberty and hope; here alone was there a ruler who refused to obey the commands of Austria; she only could form the rallying-point of Italian patriots. It was now that Cavour, the great statesman and patriot, made his power felt in the councils of the nation.

“Piedmont must prove herself worthy to lead the states of Italy to unity and freedom,” was the rule upon which he framed his policy.

His first important contest was with the Church of Rome, whose priests held great estates and exercised vast power. In this struggle he made many more enemies; but he convinced the

people of Piedmont that he was on the side of liberty, and he set forward in strong terms his belief that, in spite of what had happened, Italy would yet become a great nation.

Shortly afterwards Cavour was made Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, D'Azeglio, the former painter and writer, being Prime Minister. Cavour's influence was felt at once. He would allow no persecution of those whose views were not the same as those of the party in power, and he did all he could to make friends with England and France. He believed that, in the end, France would have to be asked to take the side of Italy against the Austrians.

After being out of office for some time, during which period he visited France and England, Cavour was asked by the king to become Prime Minister. D'Azeglio had resigned because of the opposition of the Senate and of the royal family to a Bill which had already passed the Lower House, and which was intended still further to lessen the power of the Church.

So began, in 1852, the "Great Ministry," which was to mean so much to Italy. Cavour first endeavoured to put the finances of the country in order. He increased the taxes, because money was needed for the army and for the public service; but his wise expenditure on roads, canals, and railways soon increased the prosperity of

the country. At first, however, he was very unpopular, and a crowd of angry citizens tried to seize and maltreat him.

Cavour was altogether unmindful of the anger of the mob, and the outcry of his opponents. He had decided upon his course, and could not be turned from it. He showed once again, in 1853, of what sturdy stuff he was made. A quickly suppressed rebellion took place in Milan, and, as an extra measure of punishment, the Austrian government seized the lands of those Lombards who, after the last rebellion, had fled into Piedmont and become citizens of that state. Cavour at once recalled the Sardinian ambassador from Vienna, and prepared for war—though war was the very last thing he desired at the time. His show of strength, however, brought Britain and France to his side, and Austria gave way.

Sardinia was slowly winning the right to be regarded as one of the great nations of Europe. Her prosperity was now assured; her army was large and efficient, and, by Cavour's spirited action, she had won a diplomatic victory over her ancient enemy.

The minister now decided upon a step still more daring and ambitious. War was about to break out between Britain, France, and Turkey on the one hand, and Russia on the other. In this war he asked the King of Sardinia to take part

as the ally of the Western Powers. The king was in favour of the idea, but nearly the whole nation was against it. The people would have been willing to fight Austria, but they could not see the use of fighting Russia.

France did not favour the plan very much, but, on the other hand, Britain welcomed it gladly, even offering to pay the troops. This would not, of course, have done at all; the Sardinian soldiers were to go as allies. Cavour wished to prove to Europe that Italian soldiers could fight, and that their country could afford to support them in the field without straining her resources. He and his king hoped that Austria would ally herself with Russia, and so give Italy one more chance of throwing off the yoke.

The Sardinian troops distinguished themselves at the battle of the Tchernaya, in the Crimea, and all Piedmont went wild with pride and joy. Victor Emmanuel visited France and Britain, taking Cavour with him, and both were well received. Peace came, however, without the chance of a blow at Austria; and, to her people, Sardinia seemed to have gained little from the war but the privilege of paying the heavy expenses of the campaign.

In the meantime the old fight with the Church was renewed. A Bill for the suppression of convents and monasteries was passed by the

Lower House, and sent for consideration to the Senate. At this moment the king was offered by the Church an annual sum equal to the incomes of these religious houses, and he joyfully asked Cavour to accept what he regarded as a favourable compromise. He did not see that the statesman's object was to diminish the power of the Church, and when the Prime Minister resigned, rather than agree to any such arrangement, the king was secretly very glad, as he had never overcome his dislike for him.

Victor Emmanuel soon found, however, that he could not do without him. Angry mobs surged shouting round the palace, and after vainly trying to get some one to accept the post of Prime Minister, the king was obliged to recall him, and the Bill was passed.

Cavour went, at the close of the Crimean War, to the Congress of Paris to represent Sardinia. Here he not only upheld the dignity of his country, but made numerous friends. He was short and stout, and not personally very attractive; but his strength of mind and firmness of character impressed favourably all whom he met.

Yet it did not seem that Sardinia had gained very much by her interference in European affairs. Neither France nor Britain took up her cause, though at the Congress of Paris Lord Clarendon spoke out very strongly

against the occupation of Rome by the French, and of Bologna by the Austrians, and condemned the misgovernment of the Papal States and of the kingdom of Naples.

All Italy was now waiting for something to happen which would direct the efforts of the patriots. In the meantime, Cavour strained every nerve to make Sardinia an object-lesson, not only to Italy, but to Europe. He wished to show that a prosperous and orderly constitutional monarchy was possible in Italy—a thing which no one at that time really believed. He removed the arsenal from Genoa to Spezia, and put forward an ambitious naval policy; he compelled the Chamber to vote money for the boring of Mont Cenis, so that Piedmont should be in closer touch with the western world. Each year's outlay was greater than its income, and yet undismayed he proposed further expenditure in the coming year.

His opponents called him a "Dictator"; but when he offered to withdraw if the Chamber did not trust him, even they saw the folly of changing pilots when the ship of state was in such troubled waters. "He got us into this difficulty," they said; "he must get us out of it."

In 1856 he met Garibaldi and discussed plans for the liberation of Italy; it was in the same



M.N.

Cavour.

year that he commenced to hold secret interviews with La Farina, a Sicilian at the head of a powerful party whose watchword was, "A free Italy under Victor Emmanuel."

The attempted murder of Napoleon III. in Paris by an Italian, Orsini, drew the eyes of Europe to the Sardinian kingdom. Napoleon accused the king and his government with laxity in dealing with firebrands like Orsini, and though the king's angry protest changed his feeling to some extent, he is believed to have feared ever after that, if he did not help the Italian cause, he would perish by the dagger of an Italian patriot.

He sent for Cavour to meet him secretly at Plombières, where a treaty was entered into between them for the freeing of Italy from the Austrian yoke. Napoleon was to send two hundred thousand soldiers to defend Piedmont, if the Austrians declared war; Piedmont herself was to find one hundred thousand. The compact was sealed by the marriage of the king's daughter to the emperor's son.

It was now Cavour's task so to manage affairs that Piedmont should be ready at any moment for the outbreak of war, and at the same time he was to compel Austria to put herself in the wrong by breaking the peace.

The king, who had been deeply grieved by

the sacrifice of his daughter, and by the need of agreeing to give to France, as her reward for the help she should give, the province of Savoy, was more eager even than Cavour that the struggle should begin; and it was more necessary to hold him back than to urge him onward.

A corps of volunteers, called the "Hunters of the Alps," was formed, and of this corps the command was given to Garibaldi.

The French nation and its empress now declared against any war with Austria about Piedmont, and Russia proposed a conference to talk over matters. Austria agreed to the conference if Piedmont were not represented, and if it were compelled to disarm.

Britain proposed that Austria as well as Piedmont should disarm, and that Italy should be represented at the Congress. Cavour consented to this, though he well knew that if Austria also consented there would be peace, and he would have lost the stake for which he was playing. The strain was so great that he was on the brink of suicide.

Austria, however, not only refused to disarm, but said she herself would disarm Piedmont. Cavour's work was done. He had compelled Austria to declare war; by submitting to Europe he had the nations on his side, and Napoleon,

in spite of the French dislike to war, was bound to carry out his compact.

The battles of Magenta and Solferino were won by the allies, and Lombardy was freed; Tuscany declared for the national cause, with Parma and Modena and the Papal States. It seemed as though Northern Italy would be freed and united. But the Sardinians were betrayed by Napoleon, who made peace with the Austrians, leaving Venetia in their hands. Cavour nearly went mad with rage and grief.

The provinces of Central Italy desired Victor Emmanuel for their king; but it was believed that if he assumed that title, he would bring about immediate war with Austria and France. Cavour had resigned office, and the minister who replaced him agreed to a congress in which Cavour should represent Sardinia. This brought the statesman back into public life, and though the congress never met, it was not long before the unpopular ministry fell, and he once more became Prime Minister.

He saw that the reason for Napoleon's opposition to the joining of Piedmont and Tuscany was a desire to get something in exchange for his consent—Savoy and Nice. King and minister weighed the matter very carefully; but at last it seemed that patriotism demanded the sacrifice. Savoy and Nice were

handed over to the French, and the next parliament which met in Turin represented Piedmont, Lombardy, Parma, Modena, and Romagna. The independent kingdom ruled over by Victor Emmanuel had increased vastly in size and power.

A rebellion in Sicily in the spring of 1860 gave Garibaldi the opportunity for which he had been waiting. With a thousand patriots he landed at Marsala, and was received with cheers by the Sicilians. After annexing Sicily to the dominions of King Victor Emmanuel, he crossed into the kingdom of Naples. Cavour had helped him secretly, and afterwards openly, being assured of the sympathy of Britain, and having secured from Napoleon a grudging assent to his policy.

As the red-shirted Garibaldians approached Naples, King Francis left the city, seeing that his day was over.

The Sardinian troops had in the meantime marched south into the Papal States, winning a battle at Castelfidardo, and taking the city of Ancona. In a few weeks all Italy, except Rome and Venetia, was united under the rule of King Victor Emmanuel.

Cavour saw that without Rome Italian unity could not last. He even induced parliament to pass a vote in favour of making Rome the capital of Italy ; but there were two formidable obstacles.

The French troops must be turned out of Rome without offending France, and Catholics must be assured that though temporal power—such as a king wields—was to be taken from the pope, no attempt would be made to curb his spiritual power. There must be a free church in a free Italy.

Cavour was not destined to live to see his ideal of a reunited Italy completely carried out. Two wars were necessary before Venetia and Rome became united to the rest of free Italy; and, though final success crowned the efforts of the patriots, the want of the guiding hand of the minister was felt throughout the struggle.

His death, which took place on the 6th of June, 1861, was, without doubt, the result of his unceasing attention to the heavy duties of his position, and the constant anxiety in which he lived.

His monument remains in a free Italy, united under a constitutional monarchy; for it is not too much to say that had it not been for his magnificent work in building up the prosperity and influence of Piedmont, so that she might form a nucleus round which the other Italian states could cling, the unification and liberation of Italy would have been set back for many years—perhaps for ever.

VII. Prince Bismarck.

THE kingdom of Prussia, now the chief state of the German Empire, began its wonderful history as a small pagan community of Slavonic tribes living on the Baltic shore, and offering what resistance it could to the Teutons, who swept across it in their progress from the north, into what is now Germany.

Its people were not converted to Christianity till the eleventh century, when the King of Poland conquered them : even then their conversion was only nominal, for a hundred years later they shook off the Polish yoke and again became pagan.

Their increasing numbers caused them to spread over the adjoining territory—Pomerania—and the Teutonic knights, of whom we heard in an earlier section of this book, entered upon a crusade against them, winning after a desperate struggle.

They finally became subject to the rulers of Brandenburg—the famous Hohenzollern family to which the present German Emperor belongs. These rulers were at first called “Electors”; but in the year 1700, the Elector of Brandenburg obtained from the Emperor of Germany the right to call himself King of Prussia.

Under its electors and now under its kings, the Brandenburg-Prussian state increased steadily in size and in power, until, when Frederick William I. died in 1740, he left to his son, afterwards to become "Frederick the Great," a fine territory, a full treasury, and an army of over eighty thousand men.

Frederick's seizure of Silesia brought about the Seven Years' War, in which nearly all the powers of Europe, except Britain, joined Austria against him. But when the war ended, Frederick was still in possession of Silesia, and Prussia had become one of the great powers of Europe. At his death he left to his son a kingdom nearly doubled in area, with a population twice that of which he himself had become the head, and eight times as much money in the treasury as his father had left to him.

But dark days were ahead for Prussia, her people, and her king. During the reign of Frederick William III. occurred those terrible wars of the French Revolution, which altered the boundaries of so many states and ended the power of so many of the smaller princes. Prussia for long held aloof from the struggle, believing that the downfall of her old rival, Austria, would make her the head of all the states of Germany.

This selfish policy, however, helped to cause

her downfall; for when, roused at last by the insults with which Napoleon was goading her into war, she turned her arms against him, she was left almost unaided.

Though her army was as large as that of Napoleon, and well-armed, her generals had no chance against his wonderful military genius, and were utterly defeated at Jena and Auerstadt. Berlin was occupied by the French, and the Prussian people were made to feel the weight of the conqueror's hand. It was not long before, from one end of the land to the other, the wrathful Prussians determined at the first opportunity to shake off the hated tyranny.

The chance came, as we know, and a Prussian army marched through the streets of Paris, while the tyrant was sent to Elba, to be king of a toy kingdom. When the escaped emperor made his desperate throw at Waterloo—and lost—it was the Prussians under Blücher who turned defeat into rout, and so broke his power for ever.

The Congress of Vienna added very greatly to the territory of Prussia; but it added also to that of Bavaria and Hanover, the latter becoming a kingdom.

The two most powerful states, however, were Prussia and Austria, each jealous of the other, each wishing to be regarded as the chief German state. The jealousy was so keen that it was found better

not to attempt to restore the Empire of Germany, which had fallen to pieces under the blows of Napoleon in 1806; but the thirty-nine states were formed into a confederation, or "Bund," with Austria at the head. Each state was to have control of its own affairs; but the Diet or parliament of the Bund was to manage all matters relating to the confederation as a whole, such as questions of war and peace and the making of treaties.

We have seen how Metternich succeeded in stifling the movement of the peoples of Europe towards freedom, prevailing upon their rulers to refuse them any share in the government. This was nowhere more deeply resented than in Germany, where the people had been promised constitutions giving them the right to elect members of the governing body; and many riots took place, the Duke of Brunswick's palace being burnt in 1830 by an angry mob.

In spite of the Bund, little unity existed amongst the states of Germany, although the desire for it was greater than amongst the states of Italy. The nearest approach was the setting up of a "Zollverein," or Customs' Union, in 1833. This customs' union was an agreement between Prussia and many of the other states—except Austria—that imports from other countries into any of these states should

pay the same duty, but that upon goods passing simply from one of the states to another no duty should be levied.

This was not only an important step towards unity, but a boon to merchants and manufacturers, as well as to the peoples of the several states. Before the agreement, an article could be taxed at the frontier of every state through which it passed, and since every duty was added to the first price of the article, its cost to the consumer was sometimes very high. Before Napoleon's time there were in south Germany thirty-six states with different customs and different coinage!

But the burning desire for liberty could not be kept down for ever, and the year 1874 saw the opening of the United Diet of Prussia—a sham parliament, it is true, where the king's word was supreme—a parliament, moreover, which met only at the king's invitation—yet the beginning of a representative government.

One member of this United Diet was Herr von Bismarck-Schönhausen, a splendidly built man of six feet two, stalwart and erect, with fearless blue eyes, fair hair and beard, and a fresh, healthy face. He was just over thirty-one years of age, and came as a substitute for the member who represented his district.

Otto Edward Leopold von Bismarck-Schönhausen—to give him his full name—was to

become in course of time the greatest statesman Germany has ever known; but in this first meeting of the United Diet he sat day after day for over a month without speaking a word. For, to him, the very existence of such a body was a wrong to his sovereign and a peril to his country. When he did at last take part in the debates, he opposed at every point those who wished to wring further concessions from the king. The Diet sat for eleven weeks, and was then dissolved by the king, who began to fear it and its doings.

Otto von Bismarck, who had shown himself so ardent a supporter of the king's authority, was born in 1815—the year of Waterloo—at Schönhofen, in Prussian Saxony. He was descended from a long line of warriors, many of whom had fought against France. After spending six years at a preparatory school, he went at the age of twelve to one of the public high schools of Berlin, where he showed himself an apt pupil.

He was especially quick in learning languages. Greek and Latin he took as part of the ordinary course, and in both French and English he had made wonderful progress, when at the age of seventeen he went to the University of Göttingen. He was afterwards remarkable for his command of French, English, Italian, Russian, and Dutch.

He could ride, shoot, and fence, swim and row and run. Of his riding wonderful stories are told. He was utterly fearless, would mount any horse no matter how spirited, and he naturally met with several accidents which might well have been serious. His brother, riding in front of him on one occasion was startled by the crack with which Otto's head struck the ground; and once afterwards he was thrown with such force that the doctor wondered his neck had not been broken.

At the university Bismarck became one of the wildest of students, strolling about with a huge mastiff, and smoking a pipe a yard long. He is said to have fought nearly thirty duels, and to have been scratched only once across the cheek—the one place, by the way, unprotected by wadding and leather in students' duels in Germany.

From Göttingen Bismarck went to the University of Berlin. Here his life seemed little different from what it had been at Göttingen; but he must, nevertheless, have worked tremendously in secret, for he passed the difficult state examination in law with credit.

He now became a law-reporter, continuing at that and other legal duties until twenty-four years of age, but contriving to see a good deal of society, both German and foreign. During

the eight years between twenty-four and thirty-two he devoted himself to the improvement of the estates of the family—a curious point of resemblance to the career of the Italian statesman, Cavour. In the meantime, of course, he underwent the military training to which every young Prussian had to submit.

At this period he must have been a terrible fellow to have as a neighbour. He was known as “mad Bismarck,” and well deserved the nick-name. Riding like the wild horseman, he would gallop at night to ball or rout, where he would dance or drink till morning. Upon his friends he played the roughest practical jokes—and yet he risked his life to save his groom from drowning.

But amid all this wild roystering there were periods when he read widely and thought deeply. He travelled, too, in France and England, making shrewd comments upon the inhabitants and their customs.

After the dissolution of the first session of the United Diet, Bismarck married Johanna von Puttkamer, a lady nine years younger than himself. After a loving companionship of fifty years, he said of her in 1897: “She it is who has made me what I am.”

During his wedding-tour in Italy, Bismarck met the king at Venice, and there strongly urged

upon him the need of keeping the people from meddling in affairs of state, and of maintaining to the full all the powers of the crown. He also broached the subject of German unity, advocating the policy of persuading the various kings and princes to choose the King of Prussia as their head.

The year 1847 was a year of unrest all over Europe, and the next year, 1848, has been called the year of revolutions. In the former year the demands for reform became louder and more threatening in France, Italy, and Austria as well as in Germany; in the latter year the French monarchy was overturned and a republic proclaimed; Metternich was compelled to flee for his life to England; the Italian patriots rose against Austria; the Berlin mob forced from their unwilling king, after days of strife and bloodshed, a sort of Constitution for Prussia, and about five hundred men from the whole of the German states—including Austria—met at Frankfort, calling themselves, with the approval of all Germany, the National Assembly, thus replacing the old Bund.

Things might now have gone very well, for a central government was formed with the Archduke John of Austria as president, and all the states seemed willing to leave purely national affairs entirely to its charge. Just at this time,

however, the King of Denmark, who happened to be also Duke of Holstein, claimed that his duchy was part of his Danish dominions. War was declared by the National Assembly, but was carried on so feebly that Prussia stepped in and commanded a truce.

Shortly after this the Emperor Ferdinand of Austria abdicated in favour of his nephew, Francis Joseph, the present emperor, and advantage was taken of this by the remaining states to offer to the King of Prussia the title of Emperor of Germany, thus shutting out Austria from the German confederation.

The king refused the honour for various reasons: it was offered by the people and not by their rulers; it would make Austria the deadly enemy of Prussia—and the news of the defeat of the forces of Piedmont at Novara, just to hand, showed that Austria was a foe not to be despised; and, lastly, the Constitution proposed for the new empire gave too little power to the emperor.

This rebuff killed the National Assembly, which was replaced in 1851 by the old Bund. This came about in the following way. The King of Prussia had not by any means, in refusing the imperial crown, abandoned the idea of a reunited Germany under his sway as emperor. He objected to the manner of the offering, and to the conditions attached to it—not to the crown

itself; and he invited the princes of the various states to send representatives to Berlin to discuss the formation of a federal state.

To Bismarck, who was a member of the Prussian Chamber, the National Assembly represented the revolutionary elements of the German populations, and a motion being proposed in the chamber that the king be advised to accept the imperial crown, he opposed it in a powerful speech. The revolutionists were to Bismarck "robbers" who coveted the lands and property of the nobles; he firmly believed that all their talk about reform was a mere blind—a cloak to hide from the king and the nobles their actual aim.

The king now entered into an alliance with the Kings of Saxony and Hanover, the object of which was to bring about a federation of all the German states except Austria. The other states showed little sign of agreeing to such an arrangement, and Austria objected vigorously.

Nevertheless, a "German" parliament was elected and met at Erfurt, Luther's birthplace. It was soon found that the members represented only Prussia and some of the smaller states. In this parliament of 1850, Bismarck was Speaker's secretary, and he fought against the Constitution drawn up by it, openly stating that it did not give to Prussia that power which was her right.



M.N.

Bismarck.

II

Baden, with its million people, would have as much influence as Prussia with her sixteen millions. The Erfurt parliament, however, passed the Charter.

Meanwhile, Austria had succeeded in reviving the old Bund at Frankfort. She invited Prussia to join her, so that union might be complete, but the king refused, urging that the Erfurt parliament was now the National Congress. So, in 1850, there were two parliaments or Diets, one at Erfurt and one at Frankfort, each claiming to represent the states of Germany.

Before long this dangerous position had its natural consequence. The Elector of Hesse was compelled to flee from his realm by a rising of his subjects. The Diet at Frankfort despatched an army of Austrians and Bavarians to replace him on his throne, and at the same time the Princely College, as the assembly at Erfurt was called, sent a Prussian army to keep order in the state, as it was one of those which had joined the Prussian union.

The two armies came within sight of each other, and a collision was without doubt a matter of a few hours only, when a message came from the Czar of Russia to the effect that he would fire on the first who broke the peace, and the Prussian army was withdrawn.

The two nations remained on the brink of

war; but Austria, with Russia and Bavaria as her allies, was a dangerous foe, and the King of Prussia felt compelled to submit. The Elector of Hesse was to be replaced on his throne by the Austrian army, the Danish claim to Holstein was to be acknowledged, the parliament of Erfurt was to cease to exist, and the Diet of Frankfort be once more supreme, with Austria at its head. The peace of Olmütz was a complete surrender of Prussia to Austria.

In the Prussian Chamber Bismarck warmly defended the policy of Olmütz, partly because the Diet at Frankfort would represent the princes and not the peoples of Germany, and partly because he knew that a war with Austria and her allies would have ended in the defeat of Prussia; for the state of the Prussian army was not so satisfactory as he could have wished.

The outcome of his defence was his appointment by the king to the post of secretary to the Prussian representative at Frankfort, with the rank of Privy Councillor of Legation.

The liberal press of Germany openly sneered at Bismarck's appointment to so responsible a position, and his reception at Frankfort might well have subdued a weaker man. Bismarck, however, coolly set himself to study the characters and aims of the various representatives, who were seventeen in number, and in whose

hands were placed the affairs of over thirty states.

Before the end of the year Bismarck was appointed to represent Prussia, and he soon taught the Austrian representative, Count Thun, the President, that Prussia did not intend to take a second place in the Diet, but that she claimed perfect equality with the dual-monarchy. The president's manner was purposely cool and off-hand; he alone smoked during the meetings of the Diet. Bismarck amazed him by himself pulling out a cigar and asking for a light, and he afterwards quietly remonstrated with him upon his high-handed behaviour. So the long duel began that ended only at Sadowa, where the defeat of the Austrian army placed Prussia finally at the head of the German federation.

At Frankfort, Bismarck met Prince Frederick William Louis, afterwards William I. of Prussia, and they there formed that sincere attachment to each other which lasted without break until William's death in 1888. He also met and talked with Prince Metternich, who had a very high opinion of him.

His energy and address did much to restore the prestige Prussia had lost at Olmütz; but on the outbreak of the war in Italy between Piedmont and France on the one side and Austria on the other, Bismarck was recalled

from Frankfort, and sent as Prussian ambassador to St. Petersburg. Possibly it was feared that his sympathy with Italy might lead Prussia into war with Austria.

At St. Petersburg he remained till 1862; but he continued to exercise a powerful influence in Prussian affairs.

In 1861, King Frederick William IV. died, and his brother ascended the throne as William I. He was a monarch of firmer character and greater knowledge of statecraft than Frederick. He was as ardent an advocate of German unity—with Prussia at the head—as Bismarck himself; but he saw there must be first a struggle with Austria, and he began to prepare for it by improving his army. The Prussian Chambers, refusing to grant him the required money, were dismissed.

Bismarck was now recalled from St. Petersburg and asked to become one of the king's ministers. He refused at first, and passed some months as ambassador to the court of Napoleon III. at Paris; but in 1862 he accepted the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs.

He was at this time exceedingly unpopular, owing to his overbearing manner to the Prussian Chambers. He continued on the course he had laid out for himself, however, with little regard to the outcries. Money was needed for

the army, and money he got, in spite of stern resistance.

It was quite plain to Bismarck that only by successful war waged against a common enemy could the German states be bound together as a nation, and he directed all his efforts to securing, so far as was possible, that they should win.

"It is not by speechifying and majorities that the great questions of the time will have to be settled," said Bismarck in a speech to the Budget Committee, "but by blood and iron."

The king, although bent upon having the best army in Europe, did not desire to make war upon Austria. Bismarck, on the other hand, believing it necessary, determined to choose his own time. In 1863, therefore, as the army was ready, he began to pick a quarrel with Austria, hiding his design from the king. His chance came with the death of the King of Denmark in November. This opened once more the question of the Elbe duchies. The Diet at Frankfort sent an army of Saxons and Hanoverians to occupy the duchies, and Bismarck despatched a Prussian force to keep them company.

Austria claimed the right to send an army also, but this was most displeasing to the other states, as had been the sending of the Prussian army. Bismarck did his utmost to foster this feeling of anger against Austria.

Before long this joint occupation of the duchies ended in a rupture between Prussia and Austria. Bismarck had secured the friendship for Prussia of France and Russia, and Italy was ready to act against Austria in order to recover Venetia; so that the Prussian statesman knew there was a clear field.

The Prussian and the Austrian forces were about equal in number, but the Prussians were far more efficient, and were armed with a new breech-loading gun called the needle-gun, while the Austrians had only the old-fashioned muzzle-loader. Another point in Prussia's favour was the skill of the commander-in-chief, General von Moltke.

The Prussians began the campaign in the June of 1866, annexing the Elbe duchies, Hesse-Cassel, part of Saxony, and the whole of Hanover. The Hanoverian army surrendered, and the King of Hanover fled to England.

Von Moltke now advanced into Bohemia with three armies, which marched by separate routes, but united to fight, thus reaching the point aimed at in a wonderfully short time. The defeat of Sadowa, where four hundred and thirty thousand men were engaged on both sides, and where the Prussians lost ten thousand men and the Austrians eighteen thousand, decided the issue in favour of Prussia.

Bismarck had come from Berlin to be present at the battle, upon which he knew the future of his country depended, and at one moment when it seemed that the Austrians were quite holding their own, he approached Moltke and offered him a cigar. Moltke accepted the cigar and began calmly to smoke it, and Bismarck judged that so far all was well. The arrival of the army of the Crown Prince shortly after turned the tide of battle, and the Austrians were swept from the field.

Bismarck had no wish to make bitter enemies of the Austrians by occupying their capital. He knew that before his work was done he would have to reckon with France; and in a struggle with that country a hostile Austria, burning for revenge, would be a source of anxiety and danger.

Peace was concluded at Prague within a few weeks of the outbreak of war. By its terms Austria was shut out altogether from the German confederation; the Elbe duchies, as well as Hanover, Hesse-Cassel and the city of Frankfort were ceded to Prussia. Austria had already yielded Venetia to France in trust for Italy, though her troops had completely beaten the Italians at Custozza.

In winning this victory over Austria, Bismarck had won two other victories almost as important.

The first was over his enemies among his own people. For years he had brow-beaten the Prussian Chamber, and treated the popular party with contempt. He dared not tell any one what his plans were, or they would have been defeated; and when the Chamber refused the money required for equipping the army, he raised the funds without its help. Both he and the king were at times in danger of ending as did our own Strafford and King Charles, and on one occasion Bismarck's life was attempted.

The time came when he was able to take the Chamber into his confidence. This was after the occupation of the Elbe duchies and upon the outbreak of war with Austria, when secrecy was no longer needed. Thereafter Bismarck was the most popular man in Prussia, and all the acts by which he had made his policy a success were freely forgiven.

He had gained also a victory over Napoleon III. of France. This crafty ruler had hoped that Austria would win, and that Prussia would be crushed. After the victory of Prussia, he tried to obtain from Bismarck as the price of his friendship the provinces on the left bank of the Rhine, and when the Prussian statesman refused to yield them he would have declared war, had not his generals declared that the French army was not ready.

The north German states were now formed into a federation, and the south German states agreed in time of national danger to place their troops under the control of Prussia.

War broke out between France and Prussia in 1870. The immediate cause of the quarrel was the offer of the crown of Spain to one of the Prussian royal family ; but there had been ill-feeling between the two nations ever since the battle of Sadowa.

The terrible reverses of Metz and Sedan, and the capture of Paris by the German troops, compelled France to sue for peace. The emperor was dethroned by his own people and a republic declared ; Alsace and part of Lorraine were demanded by the victors, together with a war indemnity of two hundred million pounds.

Napoleon had believed that the south German states would take his side, and that Austria would seize the opportunity to have her revenge ; but things did not happen as he had expected. Austria remained neutral, while the south German states sent thousands of troops to aid the Prussians. So well, indeed, had Bismarck guided his policy that during the progress of the war the King of Prussia was crowned Emperor of Germany at Versailles, the sovereigns of all the states included in the newly formed

empire, or their representatives, being present at the ceremony.

Bismarck's two-fold object was thus, in 1871, entirely gained. Mainly by his unswerving policy the kingdom of Prussia had become the head of the Germanic confederation, Austria being completely ousted from that position; and the unification of the German states was brought about, to all appearances, through the earnest wish of princes and peoples. Bismarck became Chancellor of the empire, and was raised to the rank of prince.

At the Congress of Berlin which followed the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78 Bismarck sat as president, and the small support he gave to Russia so angered her statesmen that they began to encourage France to make with their country an alliance against Germany. Bismarck was undismayed. Concluding an alliance with Austria, he sent a fleet into the Bay of Biscay and began to mobilise the German forces. This strong action had the desired effect of preventing an outbreak of war.

Under the direction of the "Iron Chancellor," the German empire began to take a prominent place in the world. Education, already well cared for in Prussia, was put under still better conditions; a strong navy was quickly in process of formation; manufactures were encouraged

by wise laws, and the foundation was laid of an ambitious colonial policy. National prosperity took a forward leap under these fostering conditions, and has since gone on steadily increasing.

Till the death of William I., and during the short reign of his son, Bismarck continued to hold the helm of the empire; but finding that the present emperor and he could not work together, he resigned his office in 1890. Since dropping the pilot, however, the German ship of state has continued in the course he set, and is at the present time one of the greatest nations of the world.

VIII. Mutsuhito, Mikado of Japan.

LOUIS KOSSUTH, the leader of the Hungarian revolution of 1848, once said that the two most wonderful men in the world were Prince Bismarck and the Mikado of Japan. Each had proved himself capable of guiding a democratic movement—a movement, that is to say, commenced and carried on by the people of a state, and not by its ruler or rulers.

We have just been reading of Bismarck's splendid work in making a mighty nation out of the disunited and mutually jealous German states, directing the forward movement of their peoples towards securing the foundations of the empire and building up national prosperity.

Hitherto we have dealt entirely with European peoples or people of European race, and it may perhaps be instructive and interesting to learn something about the marvellous development of a race not European, and to inquire into the circumstances and events which made it possible for a man like Kossuth to pick out from all the people of the earth, as one of the greatest men of our time, the ruler of an Asiatic state.

The Empire of Japan consists of a group of islands lying off the coast of China in the North Pacific Ocean. The area of the islands is rather greater than that of the British Islands, the population being also rather larger. The true name of the empire is Nippon, which may be translated "The Land of the Rising Sun." Most of the islands are volcanic. There are many volcanic peaks, the highest being Fusi-yama, a beautiful snow-capped cone over fourteen thousand feet in height. The history of the country tells of some terrible volcanic eruptions, and earthquakes are common.

Most of the islands, however, are very beautiful and very fertile, many of the mountains being cultivated to their summits; and there are vast deposits of useful and valuable minerals, including coal.

The people inhabiting these islands are of Mongolian race, with perhaps a mixture of Malay blood. Some, however, believe that their differences from other Mongolian races have been caused by inter-marriage with the Ainus, a hairy race still found in Yezo, Saghalien, and the Kurile Islands to the north, and supposed to have been the original inhabitants.

Most Japanese are shorter in stature than the average European, but they are generally well developed and muscular. They have the

small, almond-shaped eyes of the Mongolian, with flat faces and yellowish skins.

The written history of the country stretches over twenty-six centuries—there was probably an Emperor of Japan when Nebuchadnezzar ruled over mighty Babylon. Chinese civilisation possibly dates from an even earlier time; but the wonderful thing about the rulers of Japan is that during all those centuries members of one family only have sat on the throne of the Mikado. The Japanese still believe that their ruling family is descended from the gods, and obedience to the emperor's commands thus becomes a religious duty.

For many centuries, however, the Mikado had little or nothing to do with the ruling of the people. This was the province of the Shogun, a sort of military commander-in-chief. This office more than once passed from one to another of the feudal families, as the result of fierce civil struggles. The heads of the great families were called "daimios"; and they held much the same position in Japan as the barons of the Middle Ages in our own country. They lived in strong castles, and had each his own following of "samurai," or swordsmen, whose only occupation was war. Clad in armour, these samurai strutted haughtily about. Each of them wore two swords, and if he drew either of them, he was forbidden by the

rules of his order to sheath it again till blood had been shed.

We must not fall into the error of calling the wonderful changes of the last fifty years the "civilisation" of Japan. Japan has been a highly civilised state for many centuries—though, to our western way of thinking, its civilisation left much to be desired. Japanese literature does not appeal to European students; but its antiquity and the perfection of its style according to Eastern ideals cannot be disputed.

Japanese art, however, has had a very great influence upon the art of Europe. From examining the work of Japanese artists we have learnt to go back to nature for artistic inspiration. Even now, we cannot produce metal work, porcelain, embroidery, or silk equal to that of the best Japanese workmen and artists.

Japan was first made known to Europeans in the middle of the sixteenth century, when it was visited by Portuguese explorers. During the next century an attempt to convert its people to Christianity was made by the Jesuit missionaries under St. Francis Xavier. Thousands of converts were made, and it is quite possible that the whole population might have become Christian, had it not been that the chief men, believing the Portuguese would drain the country of its richness, and that the new religion

would upset the established customs of the nation, brought about at last a forty years' persecution which entirely crushed the new faith—though it is said that secret Christians existed down to our own day.

Early in the seventeenth century the Dutch obtained permission to trade in Japanese ports; and it was not long before they succeeded in persuading the Japanese to close their ports to the Portuguese.

An English sailor, William Adams, was wrecked on the coast of Japan during the reign of Elizabeth, and though he was never again permitted to leave the island empire, he gained some influence over the Shogun—or Tychoon, as he was then called—and obtained from him permission for English merchants to trade in his dominions. For some years English ships visited Japan; but the bitter opposition of the Dutch made it an unprofitable business, and in the reign of King James it was finally given up. Thereafter, until the year 1853, none but Dutch vessels were allowed to enter, and even the Dutch traders were compelled to keep to one little island in Nagasaki harbour.

Various attempts were made by the European nations and by the Americans to open up trade with this secluded people; but for many years their efforts were fruitless. At last, in 1853,



M.N.

The Mikado.

Commodore Perry sailed with a squadron of American warships into Yedo Bay with a letter from the President of the United States to the Emperor of Japan—the Shogun, of course. His instructions were to use every peaceable means to induce the Japanese to open their ports to American ships, and to attempt an armed landing only when all peaceful methods had failed.

The time had arrived when it was necessary to the trade of the world, and especially to that of America, that Japan should admit foreign ships to her harbours. California was becoming a prosperous state, and Americans wished to run a line of steamers from San Francisco to Hong-kong, and so to share in the rich trade with China, made possible by the result of the opium war. The distance from the American port to Hong-kong is over six thousand miles, and a coaling-station in Japan was almost a necessity.

The Dutch had told the Shogun that an American expedition was on the way, so that he was somewhat prepared for it, and had a force of troops ready to oppose any attempted landing.

After delivering his letter, Commodore Perry sailed away, returning again early in the following year. His letter put the Shogun in a quandary. If he refused the request he believed that the guns of the American warships would

bombard the coast towns of Japan, and yet, if he granted it, he was certain many of the daimios would be bitterly offended. There were already signs that the daimios would willingly exchange the rule of the Shogun for that of the Mikado, who at that time lived in seclusion in the city of Kioto, an object of veneration rather than an actual ruler.

While Perry was absent in Chinese waters, copies of the American letter were sent to all the daimios, and their opinion was asked as to what should be done. Nearly all of them advised a refusal to the American demand, and steps were taken to put the empire in a state of defence.

In February of the next year, 1854, Perry returned to Yedo for his answer. His fleet had now been increased to ten vessels. This display of force decided the Shogun, and a treaty was drawn up and signed giving to American ships the right to enter the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate.

Britain, Russia, and Holland were not long in seeking and obtaining an equal privilege: the long-closed land was open at last to trade with western nations.

The action of the Shogun had, however, divided the daimios of Japan into two parties, the one supporting him and welcoming the coming of the foreigners, the other fiercely

hostile. The latter party included the majority of the most powerful families, and they questioned the right of the Shogun to make treaties without the consent of the Mikado. They asserted that treaties so made were in no way binding upon the people of Nippon.

The anger of the anti-foreign party was shown by outrages committed upon foreign residents by samurai, who had resigned their positions so that their chiefs might not be implicated in their actions.

While this agitation was going on, however, rapid strides were being made in the "westernising" of Japan, and in 1860 a Japanese war-vessel, built after the European fashion, visited San Francisco, conveying a Japanese mission to the States.

In 1861 an attack was made upon the British legation in Yedo by fourteen "ronins," as the masterless samurai were called. Some of the Japanese guards were killed, and two of the English officials wounded. The government of the Shogun expressed its sorrow at the occurrence, but could not give to any foreigner assurance of security from similar attacks.

A mission was now sent to America, Britain, Russia, and the other powers with which treaties had been made, to ask that the opening of other ports already arranged for in the treaties might

be postponed in face of the serious opposition of the people of Japan.

The members of the mission were everywhere received with courtesy and kindness. Western nations were surprised to find them astute, tactful, and cultured men, and the Japanese themselves were agreeably astonished to find the "barbarians," against whom they had for so long closed their country, a highly civilised and progressive family of nations, possessed, moreover, of a mighty power of offensive warfare, which it would be vain for the government of the Shogun to attempt to resist.

A second attack was made upon the British legation at Yedo in the summer of 1862, and two of the naval guards were killed. The Shogun's government again refused to be held responsible for the outrage, but a payment of ten thousand pounds was made to the relatives of the murdered men.

The opposition to the Shogun and his forward policy was now coming rapidly to a head. One of the most powerful of the daimios marched with his retainers to Kioto to persuade the Mikado to leave his retirement and assert his authority by abandoning the Shogun's treaties, and turning all foreigners out of the country.

Returning from a visit to the Shogun at Yedo, this nobleman—the Daimio of Satsuma—

accidentally met a small party of English people, one lady and three gentlemen, who failed to stand aside and salute him. An attack was made upon the foreigners, in which one of the gentlemen was killed and the others wounded.

The indemnity demanded for this outrage not being paid, nor the murderers given up, Admiral Kuper, with seven war-vessels, bombarded the town of Kagoshima, the daimio's principal city. The bombardment set fire to the town and completely destroyed it; three fine steamers belonging to the daimio were also burnt, and all the shore batteries silenced.

This unhappy affair taught the Japanese that they could not successfully oppose Europeans with their own out-of-date weapons, and that, if they would treat with foreigners upon equal terms, they must adopt western methods in military and naval affairs.

An expedition had now to be undertaken against the Daimio of Chosiu, who had distinguished himself by firing upon foreign vessels passing through the Straits of Shimonoseki. Here the same lesson was thoroughly taught.

The result in each case proved that the Japanese, unlike their neighbours, the Chinese, knew when to discard their ancient methods and turn to the new. The Daimio of Satsuma and the Daimio of Chosiu alike sent students to England and

France to learn everything those countries had to teach them. They had grasped the fact that Japan had fallen behind during her long seclusion, and they determined, like true patriots, to do their utmost to enable her to catch up with western progress and so to maintain her dignity as a nation.

The bad feeling between the court of the Shogun at Yedo and that of the Mikado at Kioto continued to increase. The Shogun's party, which, by the way, was well represented at the Mikado's court, was in favour of what may be called the forward policy: while the Mikado and his friends awaited only the opportunity to reverse all that had happened since 1854, and once more forbid the foreigner to set foot on the soil of Japan.

Outrages upon the foreign representatives continued to occur, and the castle of the Shogun himself was burned to the ground. Under such pressure the Shogun's government tried to induce the Treaty Powers not to exercise their privileges, but without avail.

A period of great disorder now began. The Daimio of Chosiu attempted to seize the person of the Mikado, so as to remove him from the influence of the Shogun's friends, but was defeated and compelled to retreat into his own territory.

The Shogun went himself to Kioto in 1863 to

beg the Mikado to agree to the treaties with foreign powers. This was the first time for two hundred and thirty years that a Shogun had visited a Mikado. Instead of succeeding in his mission he was commanded by the Mikado to banish all foreigners from Japan. This, of course, he could not do, and did not attempt.

In 1865 the Mikado at last gave his assent to the treaties, and his death from smallpox shortly afterwards was put down by the anti-foreign party to the withdrawal of divine favour for so impious an act. He was succeeded by his son, Mutsuhito, the present Mikado, then a boy of fourteen.

The young Shogun had died only a few months before the Mikado, and was succeeded by the strong statesman who had acted as his guardian, and to whom much of the policy carried out in his name was really due.

A letter written to the Shogun by a nobleman at the court of the Mikado, in which the writer earnestly advised him to resign all his power to the emperor, and thus to end the troubles of the country, made a great impression on the Shogun's mind. He saw that, as the writer said, the troubles of Japan were caused mainly by the dual system of government, and, towards the end of 1867, he placed his resignation in the hands of the Mikado.

The resignation was accepted, but the administration—the carrying out, that is, of the Mikado's commands—was left in the hands of the Shogun. This was displeasing to the powerful anti-foreign party, and they induced the Mikado to reconsider the matter. In the end the power of administration was taken from the Shogun, and undertaken by persons appointed by the Mikado.

The Shogun was now persuaded by his friends to resist the Mikado's orders—or rather, as they expressed it, the orders of those by whom the young Mikado was surrounded.

Summoned to attend the emperor's court at Kioto, the Shogun set out with ten thousand followers, intending to occupy the city in force. His troops were, however, put to flight by a much smaller loyal force, and he was obliged to flee to Yedo.

The Mikado now took hold of the reins of government, showing a strong determination to pull the nation out of the difficulties into which it had fallen. He took a solemn oath to seek wisdom and intelligence from all nations, and to cast away for ever out-of-date ideas and methods.

One of his first acts was to call to his court the representatives of the Treaty Powers, asking them to inform their governments that all the

affairs of Japan would for the future be conducted by himself, and that only treaties to which he had given his assent could be regarded as valid.

As the British representative, Sir Harry Parkes, was on his way to the imperial court, an attack was made upon his escort by two samurai. These terrible swordsmen wounded nine of the escort before they could be overpowered, one being slain and the other severely wounded.

The Mikado at once sent some of his greatest daimios to express his regret at what had occurred, and an edict was issued, stating that foreigners were under the protection of the emperor, and that any one who molested them would be executed as a common criminal.

The Shogun still held out at Yedo, though he seems to have been an unwilling instrument in the hands of his friends. When the Mikado's troops entered the city, he was summoned to give up his castle and ships, and to retire to his native province of Mitu, there to live in retirement. He accepted these terms, but the rebel forces did not yield so readily, and several engagements took place before they were finally subdued. The rebel fleet held out rather longer, but finally submitted.

The Mikado was now prevailed upon to leave Kioto and take up his residence in Yedo, the

name of which was changed to Tokio, or Eastern Capital, while Kioto became Saikio, or Western Capital. This was a most important step, for Yedo had for centuries been the seat of the Shogun's government.

A still more wonderful event occurred in the spring of 1869. This was the calling together of a "deliberative assembly" composed of representatives from each of the provinces or "daimiates"—so called because they were governed by daimios. This was not, of course, a representative parliament chosen by the people, but it marked a great forward stride.

Another event, however, took place, which is without parallel in the history of the world. Now that the power of the Shogun was a thing of the past, the only force by which the daimios could be held in check, and the only tie which bound them together for the good of the nation, was their personal loyalty to the Mikado. In their own provinces they were supreme; land, houses, mines, and harbours belonged to them or were occupied with their permission; each was, in fact, a feudal chief, and his force of samurai enabled him to maintain his position.

The danger was that these daimios might fight among themselves for power and influence, till one of them, winning the mastery, became to all intents and purposes a new Shogun.

The daimios themselves, seeing this danger ahead, were unselfish and patriotic enough to resolve upon the only course of action which could avert such a calamity. This was to place in the Mikado's hands their lands, their samurai, and their feudal power.

Their sacrifice was accepted, and so, at one blow, fell the feudal system of Japan. The lands were henceforward to be regarded as belonging to the emperor, the cities were declared free cities, and the samurai were either taken into the service of the Mikado or paid for loss of employment. In order to meet all the expenses connected with the change, the Mikado's government had to borrow thirty-three million pounds.

Prefects were then appointed to govern the provinces over which the daimios had held almost despotic power. Most of these men were at first themselves daimios; but many, proving unfit for the task, were afterwards dismissed, and their places filled by competent officials. From the very first the Mikado insisted upon the duties connected with any post under his government being properly filled.

* This tremendous and wonderful change was carried out in 1871, and the next year saw the opening of the first railway.

A change was also enforced with regard to the religious observances of the people. The

ancient faith of the Japanese was a form of ancestor-worship called Shinto; but in the course of ages this had been overlaid by many Buddhistic practices imported from China, the worship of Buddha being carried on in many of the Shinto temples. By a decree of the Mikado, all Buddhistic symbols and images were now removed from the Shinto temples, and an attempt was made to return to the pure form of Shinto worship. It is said the Mikado even thought of making Christianity the state religion; but, unfortunately, the statesmen sent by him to Europe to report upon the influence of Christianity considered that it had less power to make men moral and sober than either Shinto or Buddhism. So, because of our laxity in following the divine teaching of our Master, a great opportunity was lost.

Japan was now beginning to take her place amongst the nations, though she was still bound and crippled by the terms of the treaties which the foreign nations had forced upon her. Nevertheless, she was able to deal promptly with the people of Formosa and of Korea, in whose territories citizens of Japan had been maltreated.*

In 1877 another rebellion of those to whom all the recent changes were distasteful occurred. The chief Saigo, of Satsuma, gathered together a powerful army and marched towards Kioto,

intending to deliver the Mikado, as he put it, from the enemies of Japan. After many battles he was, however, completely defeated, and his death, at his own request, at the hands of a comrade, ended what had been a most dangerous attempt to overthrow the splendid work of the Mikado's government.

During all these years of intercourse with other nations, the ideas of Japanese statesmen and people continued to expand. European clothes and furniture became fashionable; the people were encouraged to dress and to trim their hair in the European way; the Japanese year and months were made to coincide with those of western nations; free elementary education was established; every branch of science was eagerly studied; European languages, English especially, were taught in most of the schools; native lawyers and doctors began to practise with a skill not inferior to that of the lawyers and doctors of Europe and America; factories were built on the European plan; the coasts of the islands were buoyed and lighted at the expense of the government; a navy upon British lines was soon in process of formation, the ships of which it was composed being for the most part built in Britain; a fine army, principally after the German model, was called into being; the very titles of the nobles were Anglicised, and the

daimios became marquises, dukes, counts, viscounts, and barons.

The birth of a newspaper literature and the fair amount of freedom granted to the press soon resulted in the political education of the masses of the people; and a cry was raised for a representative government.

In this, more perhaps than in anything else, the wise guidance of the Mikado was felt. Knowing that after centuries of despotic rule the people would have little skill in the conduct of public services, and in the settling of national questions, he granted first the right to elect bodies similar to our county councils for the local government of the various provinces; and when his people had shown their ability to perform the smaller duties entrusted to them, he granted them a full Constitution. This event took place in the year 1889.

The air of patronage which other nations assumed towards Japan, friendly though it was in general, was most galling to a nation which felt within itself the spirit and intelligence and force to enable it to rank with the greatest peoples of the earth. This attitude of patronage received a rude shock in 1894, when, in a brilliant campaign, the Japanese troops and navy utterly defeated the Chinese.

But it was not until the defeat of Russia in

the Russo-Japanese War ten years later that Japan took her true rank among the nations, concluding on equal terms with Great Britain an alliance which must for many years put a stop to Russian aggression in Asia.

The central figure in this drama of Japan's reawakening—the Mikado Mutsuhito—is an exceedingly well educated, enlightened, and intelligent man, of amiable manners but determined disposition. He is no weak ruler, yielding to every popular outcry; and yet, no reform which would improve the condition of his people or contribute to the prosperity of his empire has ever been refused—though it has often been granted step by step, its influence being thoroughly tested before its final adoption.

Every department of the government submits its reports to him, and upon these reports he bases suggestions to the government—suggestions usually so wise as to be adopted without hesitation. He keeps himself well abreast of the affairs of the outside world, reading several newspapers every day.

With all this state business to attend to one might think his time was very fully occupied; yet we hear of his superb horsemanship, and of his fondness for being present in all sorts of weather at military reviews.

To his other accomplishments the Mikado

adds that of writing poetry—poetry which is reckoned excellent according to Eastern standards. Few of these poems—very short, as are all Japanese poems—are published; but those which the public have been permitted to read show that his Majesty thinks constantly of his people and of his duty towards them.

The Mikado also displays a keen interest in all forms of art and in the higher kinds of gardening.

With such a ruler guiding the destinies of a people so intelligent and now so progressive, who can say to what eminence as a world-power Japan may not attain in years to come?